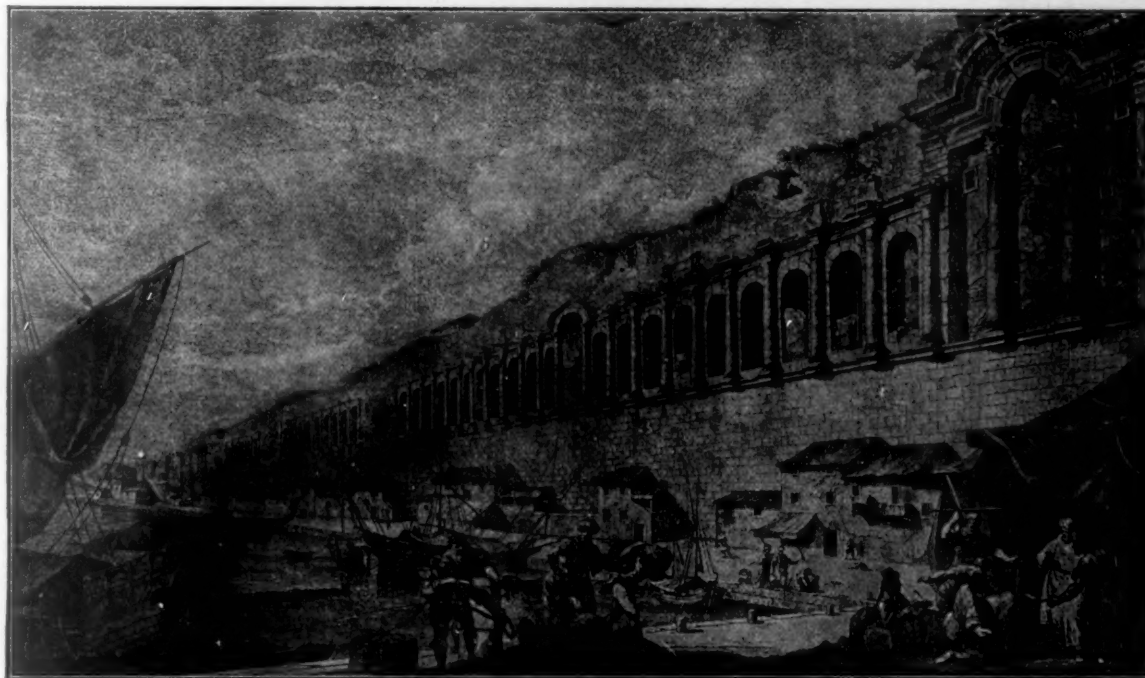
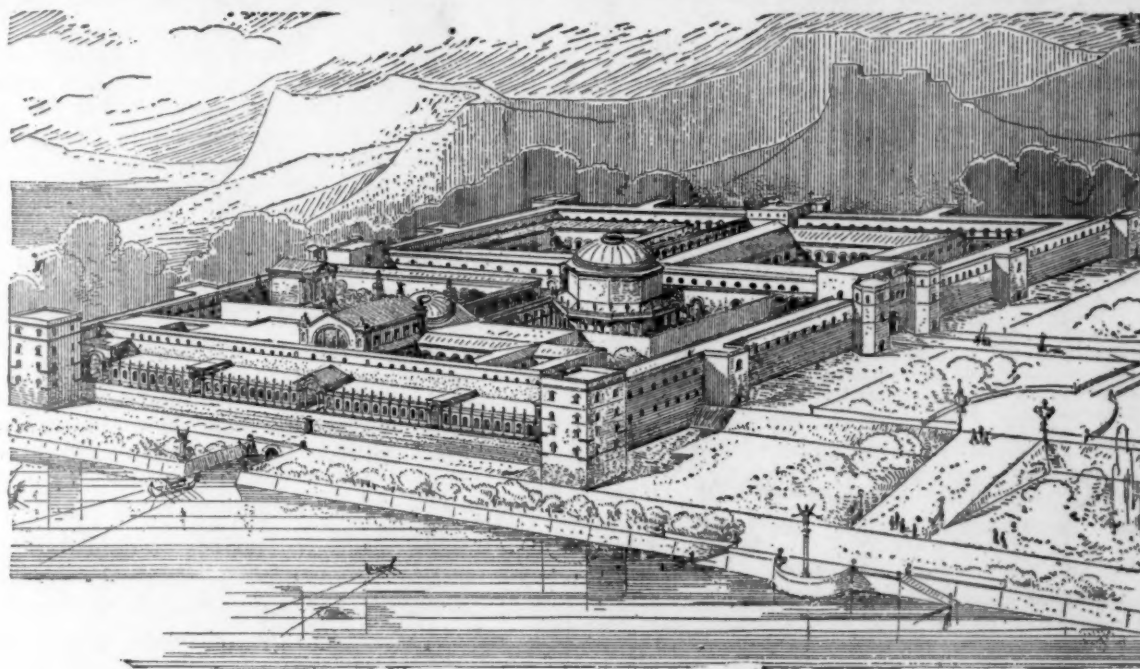


The History Teacher's Magazine

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PHILADELPHIA, OCTOBER, 1910.

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A Restoration (by Durm) and an 18th Century View (by Adam) of Diocletian's Palace at Spalato in Dalmatia. Reproduced by permission of Sturgis and Walton from Frothingham's "Roman Cities of Italy and Dalmatia." See page 44.

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New Ideas of History

GILBERT GLIDDINGS BENJAMIN, PH.D., COLLEGE OF THE CITY OF NEW YORK.

Man's character, as well as the actions of man, is determined, to a great extent, by the spirit of the age. All literature has been a product of the *Zeitgeist*. Historical literature has been no exception to this subtle and somewhat unconscious influence. In the ages of simple faith we have a Herodotus accepting as true whatever he is told, and incorporating it into his history; in a more critical age we have a Thucydides. During the period of the Reconstruction of Germany, when Mommsen wrote his great history of Rome, we find the idea of monarchy apotheosized and all the world is asked to make a golden calf of the great exemplar of monarchy—Julius Caesar—and bow down and worship. When the movement of the thirties in England toward democracy was at its climax, we have a Freeman proclaiming that in Anglo-Saxon England the king was an elective monarch and coloring all of his work by the democratic elements of the age. The age, even more than the personality of the author, stamps the character of our historical scholarships. This is one thesis in my present paper; another is to show that history is a growth.

Great events and great movements do not spring like Minerva from the brow of Jove at once into being. The American Revolution did not begin with the battle of Lexington, but the seeds had to be planted centuries before the ripened grain could be harvested. This is also true of historical writing. Various phases and feelings regarding history had to be passed through and experienced before there could be produced such works as Burckhardt's "Renaissance" or Lamprecht's "History of Germany."

The old idea that history is a record of man's past is now relegated to the limbo of out-worn ideas. The new idea is that history is life. It is dynamic, not static. It has to do with all of the activities of life. Says Frederic Harrison: "Human nature is unlike inorganic nature in this, that its varieties are greater and that it shows continual change. The earth rolls 'round the sun in the same orbit now as in infinite ages past; but man moves forward in a variable line of progress. Age after age develops into new phases. It is a study of life, of growth, of variety. One generation shows one faculty of human nature in a striking degree; the next exhibits a different power. All, it is true, leave their mark upon all succeeding generations, and civilization flows on like a vast river, gathering up the waters of its tributary streams. Hence it is that civilization, being not a fixed or lifeless thing, cannot be studied as a fixed or lifeless subject."

In our childhood we were taught "the drum and trumpet" method of history. All our text-books were filled with accounts of battles, and we believed that to be all that was worth while in history. Professor Robinson, of Columbia, gives us a recent definition of history. "History," he says, "in the broadest sense of the word, is all that we know about

everything that man has ever done or thought, or hoped or felt." If this be taken as an exact definition, then history, like "charity, covers a multitude of sins."

Before the industrial revolution in England in the latter part of the eighteenth century, Freeman's postulate that "history is past politics" held good so far as the writing of history was concerned. With this revolution, however, man devoted himself to the study of industrial conditions, and there came into existence the study of economics—the science of the production and distribution of wealth. One result of this change in man's thought was the growth of a school of historians who based their study of history upon what they styled the economic interpretation of history. The only motive power to them was that which had to do with the economic life of man. As a result such works as Buckle's "History of Civilization" and Karl Marx's "Das Kapital" were published. Although the conclusions of the authors of these works have not been accepted in their entirety, yet they have influenced profoundly all of our modern ideas regarding the subject.

In the past the economic motives, as has been shown, were disregarded; the political or religious were given the chief place. To-day our view of history embraces all phases of human existence—the political, religious, economic, social and intellectual. Around each of these phases is found to cluster some institution. Around the political there is the government or state; around the religious, the church or whatever form the religious life entered upon; around the economic, the industries with which man gained the livelihood and all forms of industrial life; around the social, the family and the various institutions of society, and around the intellectual, the school or whatever means was taken to advance the cultural life. This view of history has not only changed all of the leading works of history, but has even brought about widely different treatment in our school text-books. The works which formerly dealt with wars or rumors of war, with dynastic changes and politics, now treat of the various phases which constitute the life of a people. That history concerns itself with man's whole existence is well brought out in the view point which is taken to-day regarding the Reformation. Formerly it was thought that its only cause or chief cause was religious. To-day we know that all the phases were represented as causes. The intellectual is seen in the influence of the Renaissance in widening man's mental horizon, the political in the attitude of the princes of Germany and throughout Europe; the economic in the various peasant revolts which preceded or followed in the wake of the Reformation.

A recent work entitled "Social Reform and the Reformation," shows that a condition of affairs existed in the sixteenth century in Germany similar to the present day in this country. Germany was overrun by monopolies which con-

trolled the buying and selling price of all commodities. Let me quote the description of a great merchant prince of that time:

"He had the reputation of being a Christian, yet he often oppressed the common man. He would buy up at good bargains all the ash-wood, corn and wine and keep them in storage till a great demand arose for them, and thus create a demand for the article and sell at his own price. No merchant worth less than 100,000 florins could compete with him."

Such a description as the following might cause one to imagine he was reading an attack in a yellow journal of the day upon a modern octopus of business:

"The great companies have monopolized all things and are not to be borne any longer. All sorts of merchandize—silver, copper, steel, iron, linen, sugar, spices, corn, cattle, wine, meat, tallow and leather have fallen into their hands. Through their money power they have become so strong that no merchant worth less than 10,000 florins is able to compete with them. They raise prices arbitrarily when it is to their advantage, and as a result their incomes are as great as those of princes. They are a harm to our land."

This tendency to show the economic influence upon history is well brought out in two recent works—one, "The American Nation," a compilation of twenty-six volumes by twenty-four different authors, under the editorship of Professor A. B. Hart, of Harvard; and the other, the "Political History of England," in twelve volumes. Both of these works suffer from the irregularities and lack of continuity of works of compilation, and yet they more fully meet the needs of modern historical scholarship than any other works upon the history of the two great Anglo-Saxon peoples.

The former—the American Nation—although the various volumes are necessarily unequal in scholarship and literary character, is an example of the modern tendency in historical writing to embody all of the phases of a people's life. The editor says in his preface that the work "is not intended to be simply a political or constitutional history; it must include the social life of the people, their religion, their literature and their schools. It must include their economic life, occupations, labor systems and organizations of capital. It must include their wars, and their diplomacy, the relations of community with community, and of the nation with other nations." To a great extent the editor has carried out the vast aim he has set for himself; he has not permitted the social and economic to be neglected for the heroic or political.

It has been claimed by European historians that Americans in their writing of history, have not given due credit to the influences of Europe in molding the character of our life. This was undoubtedly true of our historians in the past. To-day we deny the allegation. The day has passed when a Bancroft will write a work of history from an entirely partisan point of view. The English attitude toward the American Revolution, for example, is seen in its true light. Our historians, through their vast labors and through the influence of their associations, are examining the immense store-house of European archives and are endeavoring to portray conditions and influences in Europe, as well as at home, which in any way have influenced the events or character of our history. The month of December, 1909, witnessed the twenty-fifth anniversary of the organization of the American Historical Association, and America owes a debt to its vast labors that it can never fully repay. To it we owe the great

effort which has been made to collect all sources—foreign and domestic—bearing upon our history. The foreign archives have been delved into, and the material has been published in such a way that it is readily accessible to the most amateurish historiographer. Everything is being done that the most careful scholar would desire.

Macaulay said that "history begins in novel and ends in essay," and that "history is a compound of poetry and philosophy." The new scientific history demands, on the other hand, a careful study of documents. Says Morse Stephens, the eminent historian of the French Revolution:

"The nineteenth century witnessed a remarkable development of new views in the classification of writers of history, and the beginning of the twentieth century has set a different standard for the work of historians from that previously established. It is now recognized that the aim of the scientific and conscientious historian should be to discover and to state simply and truly what has happened. In his researches he must be indefatigable; in his judgments he must be guided by the laws of evidence; he is expected to examine and distinguish carefully between the different sorts of material open to him; he is pledged to keep in subordination his personal, political and patriotic prejudices and to give to the world the truth as he find it; it is his duty to be objective rather than subjective, and to forswear the temptation of winning a reputation as a brilliant writer in order to have the credit of impressing the actual sequences and meaning of events upon the minds of his reader. This new conception of the historian's aims has entirely changed the attitude of the writer and the teacher and the scholar of history, but it has not yet penetrated into the consciousness of the intelligent majority of the reading public."

This new view of history has been deeply influenced by the spread of the scientific method during the latter part of the nineteenth century. The historian of this school is a scientist, and the library and the archives and apparatus are his laboratory. The documents of the ages he uses as a chemist does his solutions, critically examining and clarifying the records left him by his predecessors until he arrives at the residue of truth and makes his final analysis and summary. What the modern historian loses in breadth of view, or beauty of style, is gained in scientific accuracy and truth of statement.

Another school of historians has recently arisen. This may be called the socio-psychic school. In the past, the historian's main attention was devoted to heroes and great men. Carlyle's "Heroes and Hero Worship," or his "French Revolution," is the ideal work of that stamp of historiography. Our new school is not so much interested in the influence of the individual, as in that of the mass. The ideas of this school find their best expression in the brochure of Professor Lamprecht's "What is History?" He says: "History is primarily a socio-psychological science. In the conflict between the old and the new tendencies in historical investigation, the main question has to do with social-psychic, as contrasted with individual psychic factors; or, to speak somewhat generally, the understanding, on the one hand, of conditions; on the other of heroes, as the motive powers in the course of history."

As a result of this new tendency in the writing of history, we have what is called *Kulturgeschichte*, or histories of culture, or, as a critic has better described this school of historians, *writers of Seelengeschichte*. These writers endeavor to make an analysis and interpret the social-psychic conditions of the time under study. Burckhardt, in his "History

of the Renaissance," has endeavored to divide the psychic conditions of the Middle Ages from modern times. Lamprecht, in his history of Germany, has developed his philosophy logically. Instead of depicting the political or diplomatic changes in the history of Germany, he brings out the underlying psychological principle or cultural phase in the various periods of its history. For example, he would divide history into periods denoted by the peculiar psychic and social characteristics of that period and not by some political change. One period would be the period of sentimentalism; another classicism, another a period of romance, etc.; that is, whatever seems to have been the dominant psychic phase of the period. To him there is a people's soul as well as an individual soul, and it is his aim to view the people's soul and its result in the various changes of the history of a people. To him a Bismarck is simply a product of the age; a Luther did not create the Reformation; he himself became a part of the current of the age and directed the stream in its course; a Napoleon in another age would have exerted his influence in a different way. To Lamprecht there are harmonious and unharmonious geniuses. "The genius," he says, "is the specifically creative individual. Every one agrees to this. But out of which psychic combinations does this creative power come? It is not as Transcendentalists always maintain, a special power from heaven, a breath which is breathed by Elohim personally into these favored children of destiny after the general creation of human spirit has been completed. There is no fundamental difference, qualitatively considered, between heirs of other souls, but only an exceptionally great psychic strength. This strength, however, may be portioned out in different ways; either harmoniously, so that all psychic qualities and accordingly often all physical qualities, appeared to be enhanced, or unharmoniously so that one or a few psychic qualities

appear to be augmented at the cost of others, and according to this we distinguish harmonious and unharmonious geniuses.

"The effectiveness of genius," he continues, "is dependent on the socio-psychical constellation. What, on the other hand, is the case with the so-called '*brilliant failures*'? Here we may say that neither can the unharmonious genius, in a perfected culture, nor a harmonious genius in a time of transitional culture, find a field suited to his endeavors. *Men of unharmonious genius* are effective in a period of transitional culture when they are out of sympathy with the times; the harmonious genius is effective only when his general surroundings correspond to his nature." Gray, with his poet's prophetic foresight, expressed this idea in his "mute inglorious Milton," and "Cromwell guiltless of his country's blood."

Lamprecht says that the true task of history is to study these periods and their transitions in the most important of social groups—the nation. Nations, like individuals, are influenced by the dominant psychic force of the age. They are not isolated. "The relation may be a specific renaissance of a past nation, a specific reception of culture from a contemporary nation, or a more truly osmotic interchange from day to day. This foreign culture may furnish *stimuli*, etc.; but to be effective there must not be too great a difference in the psychic level of the nations concerned." "To trace the cultural relations of nations is the problem of universal history." Says a critic of Lamprecht:

"The scientific principles of the culture-history method are but those which have given, not alone to natural science, but also to economics, ethnology, the history of art, literature, and the other great sciences of man, their great success in the latter part of the nineteenth century."

History Courses at Leland Stanford

1. INTRODUCTORY COURSES, BY EDWARD B. KRIEHBIEL.
2. THE HISTORY TRAINING COURSE, BY HENRY L. CANNON.

I. The Introductory Courses

BY EDWARD B. KRIEHBIEL.

To understand the method of conducting the introductory work in history at Stanford University, some slight knowledge of local regulations and conditions is necessary. In the first place, the character of the student body must be taken into account. The average western student does not go directly from high school to college; he is older, has wider experience, and, above all, has *done* more than the eastern student. Consequently he is a person with an opinion of his own. That opinion, it goes without saying, is largely determined by the opportunities of the new and growing country in which he lives; he is utilitarian. That does not mean that he cannot or will not take an interest in cultural things or in academic learning, but it does mean that "he has to be shown." Things being equal, he takes practical work. Literary and cultural work are, therefore, more or less on the defensive, and instructors in these lines in the West have to contend for success in the face of a condition little known to eastern teachers.

Another item affecting the matter under consideration is the "major department system" which prevails at Stanford University. Each student at his entrance determines in which department he will do his principal work; this becomes his major department and has control, through the

head of the department, over the student's whole course; it is responsible for his registration, selection of studies, and recommendation for graduation. By controlling the choice of studies in the major subject and of the electives taken in other subjects, it is supposed that each department can train its majors for advanced work in the way it thinks best.

From the foregoing it appears that at Stanford, as elsewhere, the department of history has to provide for students specializing in history, and for those taking history as a side line. But, because of the major department system, these two groups are much more distinct than in other universities. This circumstance has at Stanford developed two kinds of introductory courses, one for each group of students.

To meet this situation, each instructor in the department gives three courses: the first of these is a *general course*, covering some particular field, such as medieval, modern, English, American, or Eastern history. The second course is locally known as the *pro-seminar course*. It is semi-advanced in character, and has as its prime object the preparation of students for the graduate course on the same field to be given by the instructor in the following year. This *graduate course* is the instructor's third course, and is like graduate courses elsewhere.

One of the general courses, History 1, is intended solely for history majors; the other general courses are intended for students of any department. No one course is considered the introductory course, though medieval and English history, which are open to first-year students, perform the function of introductory courses in a larger measure than do courses not open to freshmen. Pro-seminar courses serve history majors especially; graduate courses serve practically none but them.

History 1, *Historical Training Course*, is required of history majors and is ordinarily taken by first-year students. Those entering later, or transferring from some other major, are usually compelled to take the course, since it is a prerequisite for advanced courses in history, and for graduation. This course is taught in sections of no more than twenty students, and as many sections as necessary are provided. It meets once a week throughout the year. A laboratory method is employed, and all the work is practical. Naturally the scheme varies somewhat from year to year, but in general covers the following ground. To begin with, there are exercises in note-taking, first upon the lectures of the instructor of the course, who examines and criticizes the notes; then upon other lectures the student is hearing, in which case notes are submitted to the respective lecturers for their inspection and approval. There are also exercises in note-taking on readings. Work ill done is rejected and must be re-written, a rule which holds for the entire course. This work on prescribed reading leads naturally to a consideration of the library. Under this head, systems of cataloguing are discussed, after which there follow exercises to familiarize the student with the library catalogue, both of authors and subjects. Next in order come exercises on dictionaries, to show how they are gotten up, what information they give and what particular excellence they possess; the words used in these exercises, such as diplomatics, sphragistics, neumismatics, archaeology, and palaeography, of themselves give the student information useful in the study of history. Encyclopædias are then investigated by looking up ten topics in every available encyclopædia and by comparing the articles on these. Topics are also used to acquaint the student with the use of Poole's Index and other indexes of periodical literature. Through such practical problems as getting the address of some one, say Rudyard Kipling, or finding out whether there is a university at Bombay, he is made to handle such books of reference as "Who's Who," "Minerva," the "Dictionary of National Biography," and the "Statesman's Year-Book." Atlases are discussed with respect to map projections, and to physical, political, and historical maps; exercises teach the use of indexes. In this connection gazetteers are introduced to the student. Some work is also done to show how newspapers and periodicals can be used as sources of information. During the present year the Ferrer case was the subject of investigation. Some elementary work in historical criticism forms a part of the menu. The "Year 1000" and the "Credibility of the Early Roman Historians" were the topics last used for this purpose. The course concludes with work intended to acquaint the student with the principal bibliographies of history, and with the most important collections of sources used in history work.

History 1 is beyond the stage of experiment at Stanford. It is well-tried and approved, and is here to stay. Its results are perceptible at every turn in subsequent work.

It has already been stated that no one course is considered the introductory course for the general student of history. This function is performed by any one of the general courses, depending on the student's fitness or aims. The purpose in all these courses is to give a survey of some field of history, awaken the student to its significance, familiarize him with the literature and geography of the subject, and, as far as it is feasible, acquaint him with the aims and methods of the historian; in short, the purpose is that of the usual introductory course. As the classes are large, from 100 to 150 students, the method of lectures and collateral readings prevails. The lecturer is greatly aided by the syllabus which is distributed at the beginning of each lecture. This syllabus, which is mimeographed by the departmental stenographer on sheets of note-book size, contains an outline of the lecture, names of places and persons, reading references, directions for study, or anything the instructor sees fit to put in it. Each student receives a syllabus, and a copy is transmitted to the librarian, who immediately places the books referred to on the reserve shelf. The excellently-managed library contributes very materially to the success of the prescribed readings. The mimeographed syllabus is well thought of by student and instructor. It has undeniable advantages over the printed outline, for not only does it lend itself to casual announcements it may be necessary to make from time to time, but inasmuch as the syllabus is prepared anew each year, it lends itself to the changes which an instructor, unless hampered by a printed outline, is sure to make in his lectures.

Apparatus for teaching history has not been neglected at Stanford. The department possesses an unusually good collection of wall-maps of physical, political, and historical geography, and is now on the point of adding several hundred dollars worth to its collection. Each map is mounted in a tin spring-roller case, is kept at an assigned place, and can be brought to a classroom and hung with a minimum of trouble. The department also rejoices in a lantern and a reflectoscope. A fair collection of slides is at hand, and is growing steadily. The usefulness of the reflectoscope is limited only by its own capacity and by the contents of the library. Whatever the library possesses in the way of suitable pictures, or other objects, can be put to use. Unfortunately, here as elsewhere, there is a dearth of materials serviceable for the visualization of history.

2. The History Training Course

BY HENRY L. CANNON.

The responsibility of the department of history for the proper historical training of its freshmen has always been seriously felt at Stanford. We find they especially need to know how to use works of reference in the library; also, to have some training in the elements of bibliography and historical criticism. Out of the attempts made to supply these needs we have gradually evolved our History Training Course for Freshmen—i. e.: of which a working outline is given below. Work of this sort for first-year students can easily be made too hard. To secure uniformity of treatment it has been found better for one or two instructors to give all the work. The time given is one hour a week; the exercises require differing time allotments.

An excellent hand-book for this course is A. B. Kroeger, "Guide to the Study and Use of Reference Books," 2d. ed. Boston. American Library Association. 1908. For books on "Instruction in Reference Books" see Kroeger, pp. 4, 5.

I. SUGGESTIONS UPON NOTE-TAKING.

Value of a good method—respective advantages of bound note-books and detachable or separate sheets—various sizes of sheets—uses of envelopes—margins—headings—indications of origin—quotations—uses of cards for bibliography—Library Bureau cards—card-holders. Reference: Channing and Hart, *Guide*, pp. 19-21, 28-29, 197-198, 200-203, 221.

II. CLASSIFICATION OF BOOKS.

Different principles of classification possible (by order of accession; by shelves, alcoves, rooms; by size; by subject-matter)—any system a compromise—the Dewey classification as used at Stanford—the Cutter author tables—significance of the call numbers. References: Cutter, C.A., *Alphabetic-Order Tables*. Dewey, Melvil, *Decimal Classifications*. *Introd.*

III. THE CARD CATALOG.

Dictionary catalogs vs. author- and subject-catalogs—different ways of finding a work, as by its subject, title, author, series, editor—items to go on an author card: description (author, title, edition); collation (volumes, pages, maps, etc., size); trade information (place, publisher, year)—difficulties in cataloging authors (pseudonyms, societies, compound names, etc.)—difficulties respecting titles (degree of fullness, capitalization, etc.)—difficulties of alphabetical arrangement. References: A. L. A. *Condensed Rules*. Wash., Government Printing Office. Cutter, C. A., *Rules for a Dictionary Catalog*. Wash., Government Printing Office. Dana, J. C., *Library Primer*. Chicago, Library Bureau. Dewey, M., *Library School Rules*. Boston, Library Bureau.

IV. USE OF THE CARD CATALOG FOR HISTORICAL PURPOSES.

Exercises to teach the various avenues of approach to historical topics—as through books on the place, on the period, on the general subject, on persons or interests concerned.

V. ELEMENTARY CRITICISM:

"Books on the same subject supplement one another." (Combined with No. VI; compare Nos. VIII and XIV.)

VI. ANALYSES AND SYNOPSIS.

Different kinds of abridgment (q. v., *Century Dictionary*): compendium, epitome, abstract, conspectus, synopsis, summary, syllabus, brief, digest—rules for correct division (q. v., *New International Encyclopedia*): the divisions to be exhaustive, mutually exclusive, and based on a single characteristic (e. g., time, place, causation). Exercises: (a) analyses of single assignments; (b) composite synopses of several assignments.

VII. OTHER LIBRARY CATALOGS.

Peabody, Boston Athenæum, Fortescue, British Museum, Library of Congress Depository Catalog. Exercises to supplement bibliographies already started under No. IV. Reference: Kroeger, pp. 116, 117.

VIII. ELEMENTARY CRITICISM:

"Authors draw different conclusions from the same premises." Exercises to show bias due to party, religion, place, time, nationality, personality of author, etc.; e. g., accounts from partisan newspapers, Mary Tudor, Civil War, Roman legends, American Revolution, Herodotus vs. Thucydides, John Fiske vs. J. A. Doyle, Macaulay vs. Ranke.

IX. DICTIONARIES.

Historical growth—essential features—synonyms: vocabulary, lexicon, glossary, thesaurus, index, gazetteer, concord-

ance—value of various kinds to historical study, e. g., Du-Cange's *Glossarium*, Murray's *English Dictionary*. Reference: Kroeger, pp. 26-31, and references there given, p. 26.

X. ENCYCLOPEDIAS AND CYCLOPEDIAS.

Distinctions between dictionaries, cyclopedias, and encyclopedias. Exercises: (a) tabular view of the chief encyclopedias under the following points: size (vols.), date, supplement, character of headings (logical or alphabetical, general or specific), index (as *Enc. Brit.*) or table of contents (as *New International*), bibliographies, signed articles, any special trend; (b) examination of some famous special works, e. g., *Dictionary (?) of National Biography*. Reference: Kroeger, pp. 20-25; 32 ff. ("How to use encyclopedias," pp. 20, 21.)

XI. PERIODICALS.

Current and subsequent value—characteristics and special value of historical magazines—means of approach: Poole's *Index*, *Readers' Guide*, *Check Lists of Stanford Library*. Exercises: (a) some topic traced through Poole, etc.; (b) list of periodicals in the library that might contain historical articles; (c) list of historical periodicals with statement of general features of historical magazines; (d) description of the contents of some one copy of an historical magazine to show present trend of work. Reference: Kroeger, pp. 7-9.

XII. NEWSPAPERS.

Ephemeral nature (hurried preparation)—enormous mass—possible value as reflecting public opinion—advertisements—successful use by McMaster and Rhodes—means of approach. Exercise: search of the periodicals for reviews of McMaster's and Rhodes' *Histories*; also the examination of these histories at first hand. References: *Am. Hist. Ass'n Report*, 1900, Vol I, pp. 51 ff. Channing and Hart's *Guide*, pp. 104-106. Kroeger, pp. 12, 13.

XIII. MAPS AND ATLASES.

Difficulties of representing a spherical surface on a plane—various styles of projections (Mercator, photographs of the globe, etc.)—special difficulties of physical and relief maps—value of contemporaneous, of fac-simile, and of "historical" maps. Exercise: Examination of the best historical atlases. Reference: Kroeger, pp. 84-88.

XIV. ELEMENTARY CRITICISM:

"Mistaken statements of authors due to ignorance or carelessness."

The Hastings tradition (G. W. Hastings, *Vindication of Warren Hastings*, London, Frowde, 1909)—discussion of such books as those of Barrington, Campbell, Horry, Simms, Weems (*Larned, Literature of Am. Hist.*, Nos. 2646, 2649, 1427, 1428, 1566).

XV. ELEMENTARY HISTORICAL BIBLIOGRAPHY,—GENERAL.

Steps leading from general bibliography to specific topics; illustrated by cursory reference to the works of Josephson, Stein, Langlois, Gross (Kroeger, pp. 109, 90)—advantages and difficulties of a work like *Adams' Manual* (Kroeger, p. 89); e. g., compare his criticisms of Rollin and Michelet with those in the *New International Encyclopedia* (cf. Langlois, I. p. 126).

(Continued under Nos. XVI-XX.)

XVI-XX. ELEMENTARY HISTORICAL BIBLIOGRAPHY,—ANCIENT HISTORY, MEDIEVAL, MODERN, ENGLISH, AMERICAN.

For each field: a discussion of its peculiar features as to nature and extent of material, languages involved, assist-

ance of archaeology, etc. Exercises in bibliography with textbooks (numerous duplicate copies required) combined with simple general bibliographies as in the detailed exercise subjoined:

Exercise in Historical Bibliography,—General and English.

BOOK LIST. A. GENERAL.

- (1) C. K. Adams, "Manual of Historical Literature."
- (2) H. E. Bourne, "Teaching of History and Civics."
- (3) History Sources in the Schools.
- (4) History Syllabus for Secondary Schools.

B. ENGLISH HISTORY.

The above and the following typical English histories (5) Andrews, (6) Cheyney, (7) Coman and Kendall, (8) Gardiner, (9) Green, (10) Oman, (11) Walker, (12) Wrong.

QUESTIONS, based upon the twelve works named above. In questions 8 to 14 state your authorities and cite the page where you get your information.

1. For what class of works is (1) chiefly useful?
2. How does the date of composition affect the value of (1)?
3. What is the common purpose of (2), (3), and (4)?

4. How do (3) and (4) differ especially from (2)?
5. How do (3) and (4) chiefly differ from each other?
6. Which of these works are published primarily in England? What is their attitude toward bibliography?
7. What general plans of arrangement do (5) to (12) follow in regard to bibliography?
8. What did the historian Bede write about? Is it of value? What are the handy editions of his work?
9. What are the best single modern works on the period of the thirteenth century?
10. Where can I find indicated a good twenty-five-dollar library on English history?
11. What are the best atlases for English history?
12. Who publishes Hale's "Fall of the Stuarts"?
13. What parts of Caesar's Commentaries relate to Britain?
14. What firms publish blank sketch maps applicable to English history?

A supplementary course, including the trade bibliographies, some of the great sets of historical material, and more formal historical criticism, has been used with excellent results in the second year.

Illustrative Material and Its Uses

BY LOUISE H. HAESELER, PHILADELPHIA HIGH SCHOOL FOR GIRLS.

The born teacher is a born illustrator. She knows instinctively that nothing helps more to make clear a difficult point and graven it upon the memory than a good illustration. The other day I happened to repeat to a friend of mine, a teacher of mathematics, a statement I had read about a piece of radium no larger than a pin's head which was one of the curiosities at our recent electrical exhibition in Philadelphia. The article said that the tiny speck was luminous with a glow caused by its sending forth infinitesimal bits of itself, and that, small as it was, it would continue to dissipate itself in that way for a thousand years before there would be nothing left. "What a splendid illustration for a lesson on the theory of limits!" exclaimed my friend, in perfect delight. Evidently the habit of seeking illustrations has become second nature with her, as indeed it must be with us all if we wish to put life and energy into our teaching. But as the subject before us is illustrative material,—the visualization of history in fact,—I am debarred from dwelling upon the kind of illustration of which my friend was thinking and which seems to me the most enlightening—the kind that appeals to the imagination or mental vision. I cannot refrain, however, from saying that the teacher who depends upon material illustrations alone, or even chiefly, may easily make of her history teaching a vaudeville performance, entertaining rather than instructive, and by its constant appeal to the eye, preventing largely the development of the subtler and finer traits of the mind which most need development. The Greek maxim, "Nothing in excess," here again proves its unfailing pedagogical value.

A recent article in THE HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE* gives a careful account of the exhibit of illustrative history material shown at Teachers' College in New York during the last session of the American Historical Association. The writer deplores the fact that most of this material came from

across the Atlantic, but none of it apparently is therefore unattainable, and the list is so long and so varied that the teacher of history may easily find that embarrassment of riches is the chief stumbling block in her use of illustrative material. A wise selection must be her aim, but if, in my attempt to suggest such illustrative material and its uses as seem to me best, I omit something that some one else has found valuable, I hope he or she will supply the omission by writing to this magazine about it. It is mainly in that way that a practical subject like the one before us may be made really helpful.

Naturally the map as an indispensable feature of the history class room comes first to our minds. It is the means par excellence for introducing the study of every field of history, and is never more useful than in the first lesson or two with the class that is just beginning high school work, especially if the subject is Ancient History. The geography of Western Asia, of Egypt, of Greece, of Italy, is fairly familiar to them, and questions upon it with the map before them form a common meeting ground, as it were, between elementary school and high school, between the last teacher and the present one, and help to overcome the sense of strangeness in their surroundings which often prevents them from apprehending as readily as they otherwise might the new subjects presented to them. The close relation between the geography of a country and the life and character of its people may be brought to their attention by a few questions upon economic conditions in the different sections of our own country, another subject with which they are fairly familiar. We are then ready to lead them to see for themselves, for instance, the effect upon the Phoenicians of the mountains back of them and the sea before them, upon the Egyptians of the central highway of the Nile and its annual overflow, or upon the Greeks of the irregularity of the mountains, the extensive coast, the many neighboring islands, etc. I have seldom known a pupil to forget these

* February, 1910.

particular points when any one of these subjects has been presented to her in this way. Of course in teaching such a lesson the teacher is careful to make clear that the physical features of a country are not the sole cause of the distinctive characteristics of its people. Substituting the North American Indians or the Hottentots of Africa for the Greeks in Greece is likely to establish that point without much difficulty.

So much for the map by way of introducing a new field of history. Later on it must be used constantly for the location of places mentioned in the lesson. A teacher of history has gained much when she finds that her pupils have acquired the habit of turning involuntarily towards the map every time a new place is named. They have learned to realize that locality and neighborhood mean something in history.

In addition to the ordinary map, we use in our school MacCoun's historical geographical charts, which indicate the changing boundary lines of kingdoms and empires as the result of wars, and make a vivid appeal through the eye to the memory for the contemporary character of important periods in the history of different peoples. Take, for example, the subject of the division of Alexander's empire. The one chart not only pictures this, but shows also the extent of Rome's power after the Samnite Wars. As each new period is taken up a new chart is placed before the class and is a constant aid in keeping before their minds the geographical and political results of the events of the period, and also helps them to realize vividly that other nations were making history during that particular period as well as the one about which they are studying. I make no apology for this last apparently childish claim for the usefulness of these charts, for I am addressing teachers, and you all know, at least those of you who teach in secondary schools know, that first-year high school pupils are childish and must be met on their own plane if they are to be helped at all. May I add parenthetically that that is the reason why the introduction of college methods of teaching history into the first years of secondary school work is worse than useless—it is absolutely unfair and injurious to the pupils.

McKinley's wall and desk outline maps, too, are useful to the history teacher. Pupils may each be furnished at various times with an outline map of the country whose history they are studying and directed to indicate upon it such matters as, in Greek history, the extent of the Mycenaean civilization, the chief Greek colonies, the allies of Athens and of Sparta in the Peloponnesian War, Alexander's empire, etc. I use wall outline maps of Italy and the Mediterranean countries to keep before the class the progress of Rome's empire. After the study of each successive war, the territory annexed is colored on the map with crayons, and so from day to day the empire grows again, as it were, before the eyes of the class, and they follow the victorious march of the legions with greater interest and a better understanding of the corresponding increase in Roman arrogance and pride.

Of course, we all use pictures. If no others are procurable, at least attention may be called to the illustrations in the text-book in use. Frequently this is a most illuminating thing to do. For instance, a whole lecture upon the way the Greek sculptor improved upon the lessons he received from the East will not do as much for the class as simply to direct them to open their text-books and compare the pictures of Egyptian and Greek statues with which a text-book on ancient history is invariably illustrated. I rarely fail to question at least my younger pupils about the pic-

tures, if there are any, in their lesson limits. Experience has taught me two things in that direction: first, that unless I do this, very many in the class give little thoughtful observation to these illustrations, and, secondly, that if I regularly call their attention to them, they acquire the habit of really studying the pictures, and thus many a point is fixed clearly in their minds which otherwise would be hazy and soon forgotten.

But no teacher now-a-days need be limited to the text-book for illustrative pictures. She may cover the walls of her class-room with them, or she may have a portfolio of them to be inspected by the class as occasion demands. The article in *THE HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE* to which I have referred gives in detail not only the different kinds of pictures that one may obtain and where to obtain them, but also the cost of each kind, and it is very slight. There is really no reason why we should not all have the aid in our work that appropriate pictures certainly give. I say "appropriate" because there are pictures purporting to be historical that, in my judgment, are only misleading. We should all be very careful, for instance, not to confuse history and legend in the minds of our pupils. The "Rape of the Sabine Women" is scarcely an appropriate picture for a secondary school class-room, as all of us who have ever endeavored to separate legend from fact for first-year pupils in Roman history will abundantly testify.

One way in which to obtain pictures for class use, especially in these days of universal travel and picture postal cards, is to ask the class whether any one can bring such pictures to illustrate a given subject. It is amazing how often this results in an excellent collection and a deepened and more intelligent interest, especially on the part of the contributors. The cards are easily passed around, too, and in a large class that is an important consideration.

In addition to photographs, postal cards and wall pictures, it seems to me that every history teacher ought to have the use of a stereopticon. Such events as the Crusades, the Reformation, the career of Napoleon and such subjects as Greek and Roman art can be wonderfully illuminated for the pupils by a lantern talk after the study of the event or subject has been completed. One of the teachers in my department, instead of giving such a talk herself, assigns beforehand the subjects of the pictures to the members of the class, each taking one, and then as their respective pictures are thrown upon the screen they describe them to the class. She finds this a very effective use of the lantern, and her classes enjoy it greatly.

It may interest some who object to an oil lantern in a class-room, because of the offensive odor, and who cannot avail themselves of an electrical apparatus, to learn that one of our teachers of physical science contrived for me an ingenious use of the Welsbach mantel which enables me, with the aid of a rubber hose, to use gas instead of oil for what was originally an oil lantern. The pictures upon the screen are twice as bright and clear, and there is no odor. Besides, I can get ready for an exhibition in five minutes, and—I am talking now especially to feminine readers—I have no fear of an explosion.

This paper is rapidly reaching the prescribed limits, and I realize that I have by no means covered the ground. What teacher of history ever did cover the ground when discussing her own subject? However, I have at least referred to the illustrative material that I use in my own class-room, and perhaps it is just as well if we really want to be helpful to each other in these conferences, to confine ourselves to

our own practice and experience. In the exhibit shown at Teachers' College, New York, during the Christmas holidays there were many other things to be seen than those I have mentioned; for instance, models of a Roman house, implements of war, clothing, household articles, etc.; others illustrating the culture history of Germany; others the progress made in industrial inventions, etc. They are all carefully enumerated in the article in *THE HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE* for February upon "The Visualization of History," to which I have several times referred. In Philadelphia the place of such models is largely and, in many respects, better taken for us by the Archaeological Museum of the University of Pennsylvania, to which we teachers in the High School for Girls regularly take our classes. I suppose something of the same kind is true of all the large cities of the country; but schools that lack such advantages could readily and without great expense furnish themselves with a fairly well-equipped historical gallery by a judicious selection of these models.

A synchronistic chart of European history was another device shown at the exhibition of the American Historical Association. Those of us who have ever conscientiously endeavored in teaching general history to give our pupils some idea of contemporaneousness ought to appreciate the value of such a chart. I remember well that as a mere child in a private school, I gained my first idea of paralleling events and characters in history from an atlas upon the pages of which the different nations of Europe were repre-

sented by broad horizontal bands of different colors extending side by side. Events and characters of importance, with their dates, were printed in large type on these bands in such manner that those that were contemporary came directly under each other. Surely, this was an appeal to the eye that conveyed an important truth! Of course, the same thing to some extent may be accomplished with different colored chalk and a blackboard, but the advantages of an atlas or chart over the blackboard for such a purpose are so palpable that it is not necessary to mention them.*

In closing, I cannot avoid repeating that it seems to me quite possible to carry to an extreme the use of such illustrative material as we have been discussing. It is advantageous in a secondary school chiefly for the younger classes. As the mind develops, the true teacher appeals more and more to intellectual and moral rather than to physical vision. She should gradually lead her pupils to cultivate historical sense, which seems to me to be a combination of judgment and imagination, and without which the student of history gains little that is worth having. Once acquired, however, its happy possessor is enriched beyond measure. For him the past lives again and the present is made tenfold more interesting and intelligible. The teacher of history who develops that sense, though it be but in one member of each class she teaches, succeeds, and great is her reward. She has helped a human being to expand the wings of his soul, to fly where he otherwise would have crept.

* See article upon "An Historical Time-Chart" in *THE HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE* for September, 1910.—EDITOR.

History in the Grades

Construction Work in the Teaching of History

BY LIDA LEE TALL, SUPERVISOR OF GRAMMAR GRADES, BALTIMORE COUNTY, MD.

II. Fort Crèvecoeur.

In the last paper we described the construction of Fort Mandan by the Lewis and Clark expedition during their first winter out from the States. We saw, too, the value of source material as well as of construction to make more vivid a page of history.

This month we shall follow La Salle upon his journeys and live with him some of the difficulties of his most extraordinary and dangerous enterprise, stopping to construct Fort Crèvecoeur. Any other of the forts would also make an interesting study: La Chine, Fort Frontenac, Fort Niagara, Fort Miamis, Fort St. Louis on the Illinois, or Fort St. Louis on the Gulf of Mexico.

Again, I shall have to take you back to the class in history in the Baltimore Teachers Training School and show how the students worked out the fort after Crèvecoeur had been chosen for detailed study. The class had studied intensively, so as to live over again the following vicissitudes of life with René-Robert Cavalier, Sieur de la Salle:

1. In Rouen, where he taught in the Jesuit school. "Not at the center of power, but at the circumference; not the mover, but the moved; nature had shaped him for other uses than to teach a class of boys on the benches of a Jesuit school." (1643-1667.)—Parkman.

2. His interest in new France and his journey to Montreal—La Chine—his dreams of a passage to China. (1667.)

There was good reason to think that he had come to Canada with purposes already conceived, and that he was ready to avail



himself of any stepping-stone which might help to realize them. Queylus, superior of the seminary, made him a generous offer; and he accepted it. This was the gratuitous grant of a large tract of land at the place now called La Chine, above the great rapids of the same name, and eight or nine miles from Montreal. On one hand, the place was greatly exposed to attack; and, on the other, it was favorably situated for the fur-trade. La Salle and his successors became its feudal proprietors, on the sole condition of delivering to the seminary, on every change of ownership, a medal of fine silver, weighing one mark.

Approaching the shore where the city of Montreal now stands, one would have seen a row of small, compact dwellings, extending along a narrow street, parallel to the river, and then, as now, called St. Paul Street.

Landing, passing the fort, and walking southward along the shore, one would soon have left the rough clearings, and entered the primeval forest. Here, mile after mile, he would have journeyed on in solitude, when the hoarse roar of the rapids, foaming in fury on his left, would have reached his listening ears; and at length, after a walk of some three hours, he would have found the rude beginnings of a settlement. It was where the St. Lawrence widens into the broad expanse called the Lake of St. Louis. Here La Salle had traced out the circuit of a palisaded village, and assigned to each settler half an arpent, or about the third of an acre, within the enclosure, for which he was to render to the young seignior a yearly acknowledgment of three capons, besides six deniers; that is, half a sou in money. To each was assigned, moreover, sixty arpents of land beyond the limits of the village, with the perpetual rent of half a sou for each arpent. He also set apart a common, two hundred arpents in extent, for the use of the settlers, on condition of the payment by each of five sous a year. He reserved 420 arpents for his own personal domain, and on this he began to clear the ground and erect buildings. Similar to this were the beginnings of all the Canadian seignories formed at this troubled period.—From "La Salle and the Discovery of the Mississippi," by Francis Parkman.

3. His expedition to find the Ohio River and the Vermilion Sea (Gulf of California), approved by the governor, Courcelle, and aided by the Sulpicians (1669).

4. His return to France bearing a message to the king from Count Frontenac, the new governor, who approved all his plans for exploring the lakes and the Mississippi River (1674).

5. A year later, back at Fort Frontenac making preparations for his trip to the Mississippi (1675).

6. A second trip to France for further conference with Louis XIV; the granting of privileges, gathering of materials and supplies for the building of a ship to ply back and forth on the lake (1677).

7. Fort Niagara, another link in the chain. The building of the *Griffon* (1679).

8. The voyage on the lake in the *Griffon*. The *Griffon* returns to Fort Frontenac, while La Salle and his men push on. Fort Miami on the St. Joseph River (1679).

9. The portage from the St. Joseph to the Kankakee River; down stream to the Illinois, December, 1679.

10. The treaty with the Illinois and the building of Fort Crèvecoeur near the site of the present city of Peoria (1680).

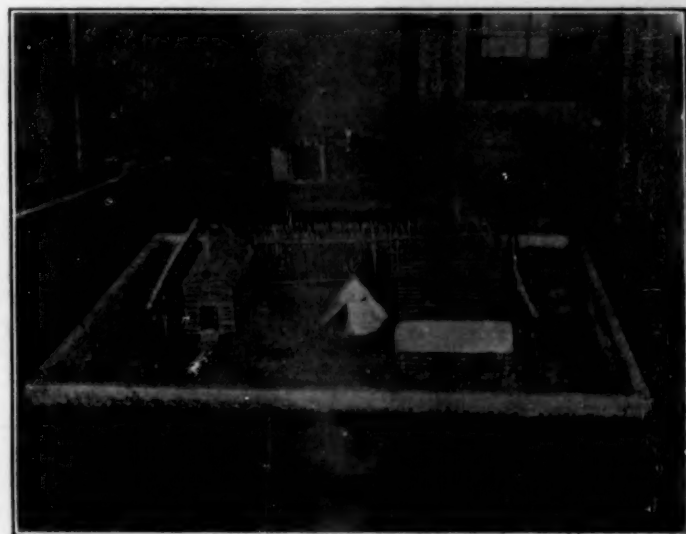
Parkman, in another passage from "La Salle and the Discovery of the Mississippi," says, concerning Fort Crèvecoeur:

La Salle now resolved to leave the Indian camp, and fortify himself for the winter in a strong position, where his men would be less exposed to dangerous influence, and where he could hold his ground against an outbreak of the Illinois or an Iroquois invasion. At the middle of January a thaw broke up the ice which had closed the river; and he set out in a canoe, with Hennepin, to visit the site he had chosen for his projected fort. It was half a league below the camp, on a low hill or knoll, two hundred yards from the southern bank. On either side was a deep ravine, and in front a marshy tract, overflowed at high water. Thither, then, the party was removed. They dug a ditch behind the hill,

connecting the two ravines, and thus completely isolating it. The hill was nearly square in form. An embankment of earth was thrown up on every side; its declivities were sloped steeply down to the bottom of the ravines and the ditch, and further guarded by a *chevaux-de-friese*; while a palisade twenty feet high was planted around the whole. The lodgings of the men, built of musket-proof timber, were at two of the angles; the house of the friars at the third; the forge and magazine at the fourth; and the tents of La Salle and Tonty in the area within.

Hennepin laments the failure of wine, which prevented him from saying mass; but every morning and evening he summoned the men to his cabin to listen to prayers and preaching, and on Sundays and fête-days they chanted vespers. Father Zenobe usually spent the day in the Indian camp, striving with very indifferent success to win to the Faith and to overcome the disgust with which their manners and habits inspired him.

Such was the first civilized occupation of the region which now forms the State of Illinois. La Salle christened his new fort Fort Crèvecoeur. The name tells of disaster and suffering, but does no justice to the iron-hearted constancy of the sufferer. Up to this time he had clung to the hope that his vessel, the *Griffon*, might still be safe. Her safety was vital to his enterprise. She had on board articles of the last necessity to him, including the rigging



and anchors of another vessel which he was to build at Fort Crèvecoeur, in order to descend the Mississippi and sail thence to the West Indies. But now his last hope had well nigh vanished. Past all reasonable doubt, the *Griffon* was lost; and in her loss he and all his plans seemed ruined alike.

Nothing, indeed, was ever heard of her. Indians, fur-traders, and even Jesuits, have been charged with contriving her destruction. Some say that the Ottawas boarded and burned her, after murdering those on board; others accuse the Pottawattamies; others affirm that her own crew scuttled and sunk her; others that she foundered in a storm. As for La Salle, the belief grew in him to a settled conviction that she had been treacherously sunk by the pilot and the sailors to whom he had entrusted her; and he thought he had found evidence that the authors of the crime, laden with the merchandise they had taken from her, had reached the Mississippi and ascended it, hoping to join Du Lhut, a famous chief of *coureurs de bois*, and enrich themselves by traffic with the northern tribes.

But whether her lading was swallowed in the depths of the lake, or lost in the clutches of traitors, the evil was alike, past remedy. She was gone; it mattered little how. The mainstay of the enterprise was broken; yet its inflexible chief lost neither heart nor hope. One path, beset with hardships and terrors, still lay open to him. He might return on foot to Fort Frontenac, and bring thence the needful succors.

It might prove interesting to compare Parkman's account of the fort with the following contemporary account as given in "The Journeys of La Salle and His Companions," Vol. I, in the Trail Maker's Series:

With this assurance, the little army, on the 14th of January, 1680, the floating ice from above having ceased, repaired to a little eminence, a site quite near the Illinois camp, where the *Sieur de la Salle* immediately set to work to build a fort, which he called *Crève-cœur*, on account of the many disappointments he had experienced, but which never shook his firm resolve. The fort was well advanced, and the little vessel already up to the string-piece by the 1st of March, when he resolved to proceed to Fort Frontenac. There were four or five hundred leagues to go by land, but, not finding his brigantine, the *Griffon*, return, nor those he had sent on to meet her, and foreseeing the disastrous consequences of the probable loss of his vessel, his courage rose above the difficulties of so long and painful a journey.

Now that we see the entire plan as evolved by this adventurous spirit, let us build the fort. For materials, we need twigs and small brads for the palisades; cardboard, thin wood, or tobacco boxes for the huts; linen or canvas for the tents. There is no guide to help us in determining a scale but the height of the palisades—twenty-five feet. There are twenty-seven people to shelter, and the inclosure must be large enough to allow space for ship-building. Allow then,

four inches to every twenty-five feet, and we have the following measurements: palisade, 4 inches high and 18 inches long on each side (they enclose a 112½-foot square). There will be no difficulty in working out the size to scale of the lodging-houses for the men, of the house of the three friars, of the tool-house, or of the two tents for La Salle and Tonty.

The class first built the fort as it appears in the photograph, showing the details of the inclosure on the hill-top; later it was built showing the strategic position of the knoll with relation to the surrounding country—the swamps leading up to the slope, with the ravines and the ditches, and rising above all, and guarding all, the palisaded fort. Unfortunately, the photograph of the latter was not successful enough to be reproduced with this article.

If you are studying the French in America, I commend to you the sand-table and Parkman's books for use with your class, whether it be a fifth grade, a sixth grade, or a seventh grade. We were grown-ups, working with simple materials, but they produced the kind of thrill that ought to come with the study of certain phases of history if pupils are ever to appreciate and love the subject as fully as they should.

Recent History

National Affairs of the United States from the Inauguration of President Taft to the Close of the First Regular Session of the Sixty-first Congress.

BY JOHN HAYNES, PH.D., DORCHESTER HIGH SCHOOL, BOSTON, MASS.

On the fourth of March, 1909, William H. Taft, of Ohio, Republican, became President of the United States, and his party had a substantial majority in both houses of Congress. One of the most noteworthy occurrences of this administration has been the growing division in the President's party. The main body of the Republican representation in Congress has followed the leadership of such men as Senators Aldrich (Rhode Island) and Hale (Maine) and Representatives Cannon (Illinois), Payne (New York) and Dalzell (Pennsylvania). They have become popularly known as reactionaries or "stand-patters," and are charged by their opponents with standing for government favor for special interests. The smaller number of Republican Congressmen is under the leadership of such men as Senators La Follette (Wisconsin), Cummings (Iowa), Beveridge (Indiana), and Representatives Norris (Nebraska) and Madison (Kansas). This faction has become known as "insurgents" or progressives. While they do not wholly agree on all subjects, the progressives are generally in favor of reforming the rules of the House of Representatives, a considerable reduction of the tariff, stringent regulation of transportation agencies, popular election of United States Senators, direct primaries, and strict measures for the conservation of natural resources. While the President is generally supposed to be very largely in sympathy with the ideas of the progressives, he has constantly worked with the old leaders, and until September, 1910, has even denied to progressives in Congress the customary control of patronage. As time

has gone on, the division in the party has grown, and recent events indicate that the progressives constitute the majority of the party in several States and that they include elsewhere a very large fraction of those who voted for President Taft. They are especially strong in the Middle West.

There was a manifestation of this division among Republicans at the very beginning of the special session of the Sixty-first Congress, which was called in March, 1909. Speaker Cannon was reelected without serious opposition in his own party, but thirty-one Republican members joined with the Democrats in an attempt to amend the rules, which permitted the Speaker to dominate the whole course of business in the House. It was charged by the insurgents that the rules were faulty and that Speaker Cannon had abused the power which they conferred upon him. The chief proposal for change was that the Committee on Rules should be enlarged and that it should be elected by the members instead of being appointed by the Speaker. The proposal was defeated for the time being by the desertion of a group of Democrats under the leadership of Representative Fitzgerald, a Tammany member from New York. But in March, 1910, after a dramatic struggle under the leadership of Representative Norris, of Nebraska, this reform was accomplished by a combination of insurgent Republicans and Democrats. The Speaker was excluded from membership on the committee. When the new committee was chosen by the House, however, no insurgent Republican was made a member. During the second session Speaker Cannon suffered other

defeats, and various amendments to the rules were made which tended in some degree to make the House more truly a deliberative body. Some of the Republicans who favored changes in the rules stood with the majority of their party members on all other questions, but most of them belong to the progressives in all respects.

The special session in 1909, to which reference has been made, was called to revise the tariff in accordance with the promise in the Republican National Platform of 1908. The President sent to Congress a brief message which gave no indication of what sort of revision should be made. The Platform of 1908 laid down a principle which had never before appeared as a party doctrine, and which is destined to become historic. It was that the tariff should be measured by the difference of cost of production at home and abroad, together with a reasonable profit to the American producer. If this principle were followed all along the line, it would mean the almost entire exclusion of foreign products, the practical extinction of all income from customs duties, and the reduction of our exports to a very small volume, for in the long run no country can have large exports unless it also has large imports. If, however, this principle is taken to mean that no duty should ever be higher than this difference, it would, if carried out, result in very large reductions in many schedules. Just how large this reduction would have been there are no reliable statistics to show, and the new tariff which was passed in 1909 did not carry the principle into effect in any degree.

Within a month after Congress met the

House passed a bill which made some small reductions, and soon after the Finance Committee of the Senate reported a substitute bill, which was debated for three months. These long discussions showed scarcely a gleam of general reasoning on the tariff. This remark applies as well to the opponents as to the advocates of the bill. But marvelous knowledge of details was shown by many members. When the bill was in conference President Taft attempted to shape it to his views. He secured a few modifications in the direction of greater liberality, chief of which were free hides and lower duties on lumber. On the final vote on the bill as it came from conference seven progressive Republicans in the Senate and twenty in the House voted against the bill. This law is called the Payne-Aldrich Bill, from the chairmen of the committees of the House and Senate which had charge of it. In the final form of the law, besides hides, the most notable item of the free list is petroleum and its products. It raised the duties on cotton and silk goods and left the high duties of the sugar and woolen schedules practically as they were in the Dingley Bill. *Ad valorem* were largely changed to specific duties, and many classifications were altered. The tendency of both of these kinds of changes was to make duties higher. Many reductions have no real effect because the new rates as well as the old are prohibitive. The writer believes from such information as he can obtain that the burden upon the consumer is slightly greater than before. It is certain that the new bill marks no essential change in the direction of lower duties. A feature new to American tariffs is the maximum and minimum clause, which provides that duties on goods from countries which do not "unduly discriminate" against the United States shall be at the rates named in the law, and from other countries twenty-five per cent. more. The President is authorized to decide this question, and since the passage of the law every important country of the world has been given the benefit of the minimum rates.

A provision of the Payne-Aldrich Bill which is likely, if sustained by the Supreme Court, to prove of great importance levies an "excise" tax of one per cent. upon the net income, above \$5,000, of all corporations in the United States. As a measure for giving the Federal Government information about corporations and paving the way for Federal control, this provision, which was included in the bill by the express request of the President, may be justified. As a tax, though low, it is inequitable, for the net income of a corporation is not a measure of its ability to pay taxes. A corporation with a small capital and a large bonded indebtedness would escape with a very small tax. But bonds as well as stocks represent the capital invested in a business.

Another provision of the bill which has the possibility of very large importance gives the President authority "to employ

such persons as may be required" to assist him in administering the maximum and minimum clause. Three persons have been appointed for this work, who are popularly known as the "Tariff Board." The President succeeded during the regular session of the present Congress in securing an appropriation of \$250,000 for the use of this body, with the understanding, which is, however, not embodied in any express provision of the law, that the money is to be used to investigate foreign costs of production with a view to recommending future changes in the tariff. This action is hailed by many as the first step toward a really "scientific tariff" by which its advocates mean a tariff based on an exhaustive investigation into the differences in costs of production in this country and other nations, in other words, a protective tariff shorn of what are considered its abuses. From the point of view of the great majority of professional economists, however, the whole system of protection is unscientific. Those who remember the fate of the Commission Bill of 1883 and know the reluctance of Congress to do anything which looks like abdicating any of its functions will be doubtful whether future legislation will be largely influenced by this board.

While the tariff bill was pending in the Senate it became evident that, unless something were done to prevent it, a provision for an income tax would be placed in the bill, notwithstanding the decision of the Supreme Court against the constitutionality of such a tax in 1895. This decision was reached by a divided bench, and reversed the precedents of nearly a century. To stave off the income tax and avoid the necessity of trying to secure a reversal of the decision of 1895, an amendment to the Federal Constitution expressly authorizing a tax on incomes from whatever source derived, was proposed and referred to the legislatures of the states. The favorable action of three-fourths of the states is necessary for its adoption. Up to date seven states have ratified the amendment and two legislatures have voted against it in both branches. Several other legislatures, which have met since the proposal of the amendment, have failed to take it up or have not reached any vote in which both branches have agreed. Nevertheless the amendment has an excellent chance to become a part of the Constitution, for there is an immense body of opinion favorable to it both among the people in general and the recognized authorities on taxation, and according to precedent a state which once gives its assent may not withdraw its approval, and a state which refuses its consent may subsequently give it. These are the precise circumstances under which the fifteenth amendment became a part of the Constitution. Many of those who voted to refer this amendment to the states did not desire its adoption. If two-thirds of both houses had really wished to have the amendment adopted as speedily as possible, they would

have referred it, as the Constitution permits, to conventions chosen in each state for the sole purpose of acting on it. This would have been the truly democratic way to do, as it would have given every voter in the country a chance to express himself directly on the matter. It would doubtless have also led to the speedy adoption of the proposal.

The really great constructive piece of legislation passed by the Sixty-first Congress was the new Interstate Commerce Bill (the Mann-Elkins Act), approved June 18, 1910. This law is based upon a draft prepared by Attorney-General Wickersham. As originally drawn, the bill was objectionable to the progressives, who maintained that there were serious loop-holes in it, and during the long consideration which was given to it many amendments were forced into the bill by progressive Republicans and Democratic votes. These amendments tended to make the bill much more stringent than the original draft. Three of the President's leading proposals failed to be included in the bill as it passed. The most important, perhaps, was the permission of traffic agreements. The weight of authority among writers on the railway problem is decidedly in favor of this under proper safeguards. Provisions to prevent stock-watering in the future failed, but provision was made for a commission to study the question. The proposal to legalize the ownership of stock in one railroad by another or by a holding company, where over fifty per cent. was already owned, was rejected. The new law establishes a Commerce Court for the trial of all cases coming under the law; greatly extends the jurisdiction of the Interstate Commerce Commission; brings telegraph and telephone companies under the provisions of the act; forbids charging more for a short than a long haul, except by proving to the commission the reasonableness of such charge in any particular case; gives the commission authority *on its own motion* to investigate any matter; and authorizes the commission to suspend any increase in rates for ten months pending the investigation of its fairness and puts the burden of proof on the carrier. This bill marks an immense advance toward the proper regulation of transportation in the public interest. While the bill was before Congress many railroads acting in concert filed increases in rates, whereupon the Department of Justice secured an injunction against the action as a violation of the Sherman Law. Conferences were held between the railway managers and President Taft and his advisers, which resulted in the suspension of all increases till after the passage of the new law. Since the approval of the law the commission has exercised its authority to suspend rates and practically all interstate rate increases made since January 1, 1910, will be examined and passed upon by the Commission in accordance with the provisions of the law.

(To be concluded in the November issue.)

History in the Secondary Schools

The Growth of Religious Liberty in America

BY ARTHUR M. WOLFSON, PH.D., DEWITT CLINTON HIGH SCHOOL, NEW YORK.

The Problem of the Lesson.

Ask almost any boy or girl in your class what brought the English colonists to America, and he is almost sure to answer: the desire for religious liberty. Ask him what is the present status of the relation between Church and State in the United States, and he will probably answer in approximately the following words: "It is the principle of American Government, expressed both in Federal and State Constitutions, that every man has the freest liberty to believe what he considers the truth." (Hart, "Actual Government," p. 27.) Now, while the second statement is correct, the first is true only in a very limited way. The class must therefore be drilled till it realizes that in eight of the thirteen colonies—all except Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, Pennsylvania, and Maryland—the economic motive was far more predominant in bringing people to America than the religious motive. Furthermore, the teacher cannot even rest here, else the class will certainly get the idea that religious liberty in these five colonies meant the same thing in the seventeenth century that it does now. The task of the teacher is to destroy this fallacious idea, and to show the class how the present American ideal of religious liberty grew out of the colonial idea of an established church. From the Separatist Commonwealth, established in Plymouth in 1620, and the Puritan theocracies established in Massachusetts Bay Colony in 1628 and in Connecticut and New Haven in 1635-1638, to the present-day Commonwealths where there is an absolute divorce between government and religion, is a long journey, and the teacher must lead his class carefully or they will get lost on the way.

Definitions.

First, for the sake of clearness, let the class fix in its mind a few distinctions and definitions. Thus it is necessary that the pupils understand the distinction between (1) *Anglicans*, those who were in full sympathy with the state established and state controlled Church of England, with all its practices and ceremonials; (2) the *Puritans*, who had no quarrel, at least not as long as they remained in England, with the organization of the Church, but who were opposed to many of its practices and ceremonials; (3) the *Separatists* or *Brownists*, who were opposed to the Church of England not only because they regarded many of its ceremonials as Papist abominations, but also because they could not tolerate the idea of any state established church. Besides these three, the pupils should also know something about the principles and

practices of the followers of Anne Hutchinson and of Roger Williams, of the Quakers and the Baptists, and of several other of the dissenting sects, members of which flocked to America, especially during the eighteenth century. Next the class must be able to define what is meant by (1) an *established religion*, under which the people are required to yield absolute obedience to the church and to participate regularly in its services under pain of fine or imprisonment, or even of the extreme penalty of death; (2) a *state church*, where all people are required to pay taxes for the support of the church, whether they attend its services or not; (3) *toleration*, which does not mean that the dissenter is exempted from paying taxes, but that he may worship in another than the established church; (4) *divided church taxation*, where, though there is still one official church, members of other sects may divert their taxes to the support of the churches of their own denomination; (5) *full religious liberty*, where there is no connection between church and state, where the church becomes a social, not a political, institution.

A thorough drill in these definitions, with examples drawn from modern conditions in America and Europe will repay the teacher for the time he spends on it. At best it is difficult to make American children understand any condition except that of full religious liberty; but one can do much by recalling to their minds the conditions that still exist in most European countries; while the various sects of colonial times have their descendants in the churches as they exist to-day.

Established Religions and State Churches.

Once this preliminary study is completed, the rest is easy by comparison. The history of the connection between church and state in America may be said to fall roughly into four stages, though these stages do not arrange themselves in strict chronological order. In the first period we find in all the colonies, except in Rhode Island, a regularly established church, though this church is not always the Church of England. In Plymouth, in Massachusetts Bay Colony, in Connecticut, and in New Haven, for instance, there is the closest possible relation between church and state. The men who founded these colonies came to America not with the idea of establishing full religious freedom, but that they might worship God in the way which they preferred. Equal preference was by no means extended to other men. Consequently both the suffrage and office holding was limited in most of these colonies to men who were members of the

Congregational Church. All dissenters were actively prosecuted, fined and imprisoned, banished from the colonies, and occasionally visited with the extreme penalty of death. In Virginia, the regular Church of England was from the first the established church of the colony. The law required that "All persons whatsoever upon the Sabbath day shall frequent divine service and sermons both forenoon and afternoon." But the enforcement of uniformity was never so rigid here as in the New England colonies mentioned above.

Toleration and Divided Church Taxation.

The second stage in the religious development of America may be called the period of toleration. This stage belongs roughly to the last part of the seventeenth century and the beginning of the eighteenth. In Rhode Island and in Maryland, it dates from a period even earlier than that. During this period in every colony, Massachusetts and Connecticut included, more and more liberty was granted to the individual to worship as he pleased, though in every colony, except Rhode Island, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, and Delaware, there was a regular established church. In Massachusetts and Connecticut this regularly established church was the Congregational Church; in all the others, including New Hampshire, New York and Maryland (the pupil is apt to think of Catholicism as still triumphant here, though Catholic supremacy died out even before the Toleration Act of 1649), and in all the southern colonies, the Church of England was regularly supported by taxation.

Of all the colonies, Rhode Island was the first to adopt the principle of toleration. Indeed, Roger Williams went further than this and declared that the civil government had nothing to do with religious acts, that every one should have the liberty to worship God as he pleased. What Roger Williams established as a principle in Rhode Island as a matter of conviction, the Calverts and the colonists established in Maryland as a matter of compromise. After a struggle of fifteen years between the Catholics and the Protestants for supremacy, the two parties were forced to agree to the Toleration Act of 1649, but though toleration was granted, after 1692 the Church of England became the official church of Maryland, and remained so for nearly a century more.

From the middle of the eighteenth century to the period of the formation of the United States, a third stage in religious development is to be noted. During these years, even in colonies where there was still an established church, part of the revenues were regularly diverted to the

support of one or more dissenting churches. In Massachusetts, for instance, not only the Congregational Church, but the Church of England and the Baptist Church received a share of the taxes that were regularly raised.

Establishment of Full Religious Liberty.

The last stage in the development of the modern American principle is reached during the period of the Revolution. In the Bills of Rights prefixed to many of the new state constitutions and in the constitutions themselves we find declarations that thenceforth no religious tests were to be required of voters or office-holders, that no church establishments were to be supported by public moneys, that no man was to be molested on account of his religious

beliefs. In 1787 and 1789 these principles were incorporated into the Federal Constitution (see Article VI, No. 1, and Article I of the Amendments), but at that the student should be impressed with the fact that it was not till after the beginning of the nineteenth century that all states abolished all religious tests for office-holding and annulled their laws under which churches received regular support from the government.

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Suggestions for Teachers of Ancient History

BY DANIEL C. KNOWLTON, PH.D., BARRINGER HIGH SCHOOL, NEWARK, N. J.

GREECE AND THE ORIENT.

The diagram on the next page may be found useful in the presentation of the earlier chapters of Greek history. It emphasizes the debt which Greece owed to the Eastern nations, and summarizes the main points in the passing of the great empires of the East. It may be done in colors and preserved in permanent form, or it may be sketched in a simplified form during the recitation period. Instead of shading the columns single lines may be used to indicate the course of the history of each State, as in the case of Greece. The expansion of Assyria, Babylonia and Persia by conquest may be indicated by horizontal lines running in either direction.

Explanation of Chart.

The columns represent the natural divisions of the Eastern world. The two oldest empires date back to 5,000 B.C. or earlier. The first reached its greatest extent about the time of Rameses the Great, c. 1350 B. C., was absorbed for a time by Assyria, and later, after regaining its independence, fell into the hands of Persia. The Tigris-Euphrates valley was the scene of the rise and fall of three great empires prior to 525 B.C., viz.: Chaldea, or the old Babylonian Empire; Assyria; and the new Babylonian Empire of Nebuchadnezzar. The Assyrian rulers by conquest established the first world empire, embracing the two oldest centers of civilization and extending over the fringe of coast line occupied by the Hebrews and Phoenicians, which served as the highway between the valley of the Nile and Mesopotamia. The Assyrian Empire was broken up by the rise of the power of Babylon, which in turn extended its sway over Phoenicia and carried into captivity the last remnant of the Hebrew nation, the so-called kingdom of Judah. The third and fourth columns indicate the duration of Phoenician influence and the course of Hebrew history. The

latter soon separated into the Kingdom of Judah and the Kingdom of Israel. The chart emphasizes the complete disappearance of the Kingdom of Israel after the conquest of Palestine by the Assyrians. Asia Minor, represented by the fifth column, did not produce a great state with a clearly-defined history until about 600 B.C. This state, known as Lydia, was soon merged into the last great empire to arise in the East, viz., Persia, which embraced the whole East with the exception of Greece. The course of Greek history is indicated by the dotted line. This stretches back to the time when Egypt and Chaldea were important factors in the world's progress.

SOME SUGGESTIONS AS TO HELPS.

The equipment of the department of history of an up-to-date high school is a matter of considerable moment. The novice perhaps feels more keenly the lack of maps, works of reference, and illustrative material than does the seasoned teacher of several years' experience. There is, however, a certain minimum of such material which every teacher should have at his disposal. This may often be secured through the school authorities; in some cases it must be procured by the instructor. There are many small schools which have very little money to spend in these ways, and the teacher must make what little he has at his disposal count for the very most possible. Besides the class room or library equipment, the instructor feels the necessity of a certain number of books or helps for his own personal use. If these are at the disposal of the entire class, or deposited in a neighboring library, they may not be at hand when they are most needed. Every good text-book contains long lists of works of reference, and sometimes suggests other helpful material, but the very length of these lists is appalling,

and the teacher or school with limited funds finds a selection extremely difficult.

Granting, then, the necessity of aids of this sort, both for the use of the class and the assistance of the instructor, what is the minimum of such equipment for the teacher of ancient history? First, a small number of stimulating up-to-date books, either those which will create enthusiasm for the subject, or those which will throw many a sidelight upon it, giving the teacher a new and fresh point of view, of a valuable and enlightening bit of information. The following books possess the merit of having been tried and tested by the writer, and are recommended as possessing these characteristics. There may be many other books just as good, if not better. Three things, however, have been borne in mind in preparing the list, viz., cost, utility, and comprehensiveness. An effort has been made to make up a library which could be purchased for ten dollars or less.

"The History of Ancient Civilization," by Charles Seignobos (translated and edited by Professor Wilde, and published by Charles Scribner's Sons, at \$1.25), covers the period from the early monarchies of the Nile and Tigris Euphrates valleys to 395 A.D. Its pages teem with anecdotes and illuminating information descriptive of the life of this period. It will furnish the teacher with many a pertinent illustration. It is especially valuable for its chapters on the Egyptians, Phoenicians and Assyrians; in fact, on all those predecessors of the Greeks who figured prominently in shaping the customs and habits of the ancient world.

Either Oman's or Bury's "History of Greece" (C. W. C. Oman, "History of Greece from the Earliest Times to the Death of Alexander the Great," published by Longmans, Green & Co., at \$1.50; J. B. Bury, "History of Greece to the Death of Alexander the Great," published by The Macmillan Company, at \$1.00, will

serve the purpose of a book of reference on the history of Greece. The merit of both books is their brevity. At the same time they contain a great amount of detail. Such points as the Carthaginian invasion of Sicily of 480 B.C., and the early history of Athens and Sparta, which are treated very briefly in many of the text-books, will be found discussed here at considerable length. Although Oman is used in some schools as a text-book, its chief value is that of a work of reference. Both books are by acknowledged authorities.

The disappearance of the study of Greek from the school curricula places upon the teacher of ancient history the burden of presenting the life of these most interesting and modern of ancient peoples. To satisfy this demand, there are two excellent books, one by Tucker, the other by Gulick. (T. G. Tucker, "Life in Ancient Athens: the Social and Public Life of an Athenian from Day to Day," published by the Macmillan Company at \$1.25; C. B. Gulick, "Life of the Ancient Greeks with Special Reference to Athens," published by D. Appleton & Co. at \$1.40.) Both are fascinating descriptions of the various phases of Greek life and should prove attractive reading.

When Roman history is reached there is the volume by How and Leigh (W. W. How and H. D. Leigh, "History of Rome to the Death of Caesar," published by Longmans, Green & Co., at \$2.00.) This should be in the possession of every teacher. It is a mine of information, and full of suggestion, especially on the period from 133 to 27 B. C. The most stimulating book on this, the most important epoch in the whole history of Rome, is the fresh, modern treatment by Oman, called "Seven Roman Statesmen" (Charles Oman, "Seven Roman Statesmen of the Later Republic: the Gracchi, Sulla, Crassus, Cato, Pompey, Caesar," published by Longmans, Green & Co., at \$1.00). There is much here which can be presented to the class as topics for discussion. Oman is the modern Plutarch, and makes the past live over again in terms of the present.

There is no recent single volume which traces the history of the empire to its fall. This period can probably be successfully handled with the material in the text-book, especially if the instructor is using a book like Botsford's "History of Rome" which emphasizes the gradual changes through which the government passed.

For that difficult transition period from 375 to 800 probably no book is better than Emerton. (E. Emerton, "Introduction to the Study of the Middle Ages," published by Ginn & Co., at \$1.12.) His chapters on the Christian Church, feudalism and the rise and fall of the barbarian kingdoms are particularly helpful.

The teacher should possess a good atlas. The most satisfactory and least expensive atlas on the market at the present time is

Putzger. (F. W. Putzger, "Historischer Schul-Atlas," published by Lemcke & Buechner, New York, at \$1.00.) As this is a German work, the teacher may experience some difficulty in its use on that account. Its American distributors have printed an American edition with an English index and a translation of the introductory explanatory notes. In lieu of this book there is the recent atlas by Dow. (E. W. Dow, "Atlas of European History," published by Henry Holt & Co., at \$1.50.) The maps, however, are not as well executed as in the German work.

Wall Maps.

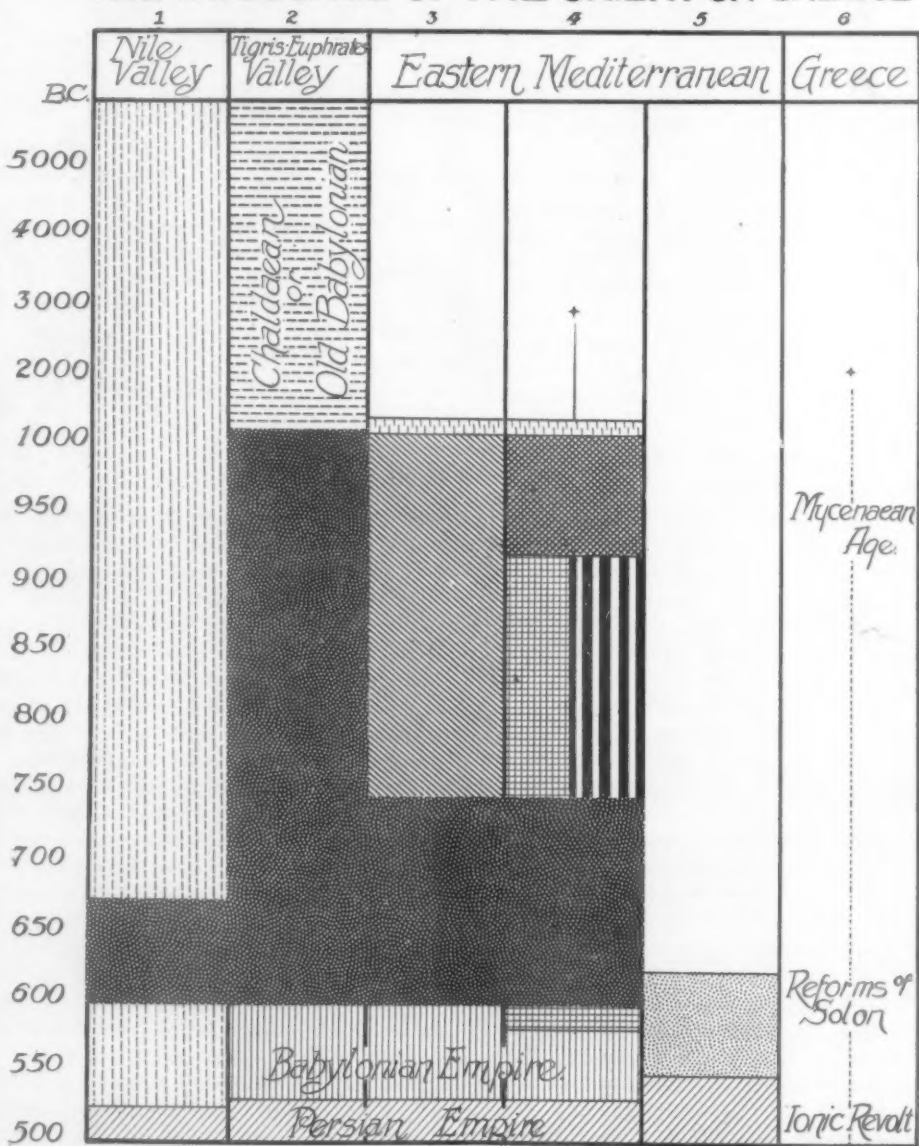
The class-room should be well supplied with wall maps. The minimum requirement here would be good maps of Greece, Italy and the East; or, if only one map can

be secured, a map showing the Mediterranean world. Development maps, on the order of MacCoun's charts (published by Silver, Burdett & Co., in a set at \$15), can be prepared by the instructor, often with the coöperation of the class, at a very moderate cost. Wall outline maps for this purpose can be secured from the McKinley Publishing Company.

Pictures.

Much interest may be aroused in the course by the use of carefully-selected illustrations. These are not a prime necessity, but their use with students fresh from the grammar grades will serve to make the transition to high school methods of work much easier, and will assist materially in bringing them into touch with their new environment. If notebooks are required,

SYNCHRONISTIC CHART TO ILLUSTRATE THE INFLUENCE OF THE ORIENT ON GREECE



Legend: Egypt (vertical lines), Assyria (horizontal lines), Phoenicia (diagonal lines), Judah (cross-hatch), Lydia (dots), Chaldaea (wavy lines), Babylonia (vertical lines), Hebrews (diagonal lines), Israel (vertical lines), Persia (diagonal lines).

small reproductions of historic scenes, buildings, and works of art may be inserted there and not only afford much pleasure to their possessor, but serve as a means of instruction. Mounted singly or in groups, these will often serve to drive in and fix some point which would otherwise fail to find a lodgment. At least three firms publish pictures which are well within the reach of every teacher, the Cosmos Pictures Company of New York, the Perry Picture Company of Malden, Mass., and the Bureau of University Travel of Boston. Those published by the Cosmos Pictures Company sell at two cents each; the others at one cent each. The following list, which can be purchased for less than a dollar, has been selected from samples submitted by these firms. (Those marked (c) may be secured from the Cosmos Pictures Company; those marked (u) from the Bureau of University Travel; the others from the Perry Picture Company.)

The Orient.

Birds' eye view of the Nile and Red Sea.
Nile and Pyramids.
Pyramids of Sakkara, Gizeh.
Great Pyramid and Sphinx.
Great Pyramid of Cheops (c)
Sphinx and Pyramids.
Entrance to Temple of Rameses, Karnak.
Hall of Columns, Temple of Karnak.
Abu-Sunbel (c)
Jerusalem from the Mount of Olives (c).
River Jordan, Palestine.

Greece.

Throne in the Throne Room of the Palace, Cnossus, Crete (u).
Gate of Lionesses, Mycenae (u).
Tomb of Agamemnon, Mycenae.
Tomb of Atreus, Mycenae.
Metopes from Selinus (u).
Athena and Warriors, West Pediment.
Temple of Aegina (u).
North Corner, West Pediment, Temple of Aegina (u).
Restoration of the Acropolis of Athens (u).
Acropolis of Athens.
Propylaea, Athens.
The Parthenon (u).
The Thesium (u).
Erechtheum.
Athena-Nike Temple (u).
Façade of Theatre of Herodas Atticus.
Olympia.
Panorama of Olympia.
Hermes of Praxiteles (u).
Athena Parthenos (u).
Socrates (u).

Rome (to 800 A. D.).

Wolf of the Capitol (u).
Appian Way.
Forum, Rome.
Pompey and Hadrian (u).
Augustus (u).
Pantheon.
Palace of Caligula.
Aqueduct of Claudian.
Ruins of old Roman bridge, Tangier.

Colosseum (c).
Colosseum (c).
Interior of Colosseum.
Roman Chariot (c).
Roman Chariot Race (c).
Arch of Titus (c).
Triumphal procession, Arch of Titus (u).
The Spoils of Jerusalem, Arch of Titus (u).
Mount Vesuvius (c).
Crater of Mt. Vesuvius (c).
Panorama of Pompeii.
Pompeii with Excavations of 1875.
Temple of Jupiter, Pompeii.
Last Days of Pompeii (c).
Column of Trajan and Column of Marcus Aurelius (u).
Baths of Caracalla.
Arch of Septimus Severus (u).
Arch of Constantine.
The Last Token.
Portion of a Wall in the Catacombs.
Panorama of Constantinople.
Panorama of Constantinople, with Bosporus.
Basilica of Constantine, with Via Sacra.
Basilica of Constantine.
Palace of Theodoric, Ravenna.
Mausoleum of Theodoric, Ravenna.
St. Peter's, Rome.
Sacred Mosque or Kaaba at Mecca.
Interior, Mosque of St. Sophia, Constantinople.
The Alhambra, Spain.
Interior of Cathedral, Cordova.
Charlemagne.

The Restoration of Empire and of Church

BY DANIEL C. KNOWLTON, PH.D., BARRINGER HIGH SCHOOL, NEWARK, N. J.

Whatever method the instructor has chosen to follow in teaching European history, whether the "single nation" plan, as it is sometimes called, or the more comprehensive scheme of regarding Christendom as a whole, certain great European movements must be recognized and their importance emphasized. They should serve as the backbone for the instructor's reconstruction of the past and should leave such an impression upon the student that he calls up his facts by referring to them. The advantage of this conception of the Middle Ages over any other, and especially over the single-nation plan, is that the pupil is trained to think of each individual nation in terms of the general development of all. At the same time he recognizes just as readily the importance or the insignificance of the part played by each in a given period or epoch. Up to a certain point in the history of the Middle Ages most teachers confine themselves to these larger conceptions; then, as the period becomes more complicated, or the interaction of states more complex, these general tendencies, or lines of development, become obscured, with consequent confusion in the mind of teacher and student. It does not matter so much what terms are employed

to designate these, but much will be gained both in clearness and in breadth of view if the instructor outlines for himself the entire period to be covered, say to the Renaissance, in terms of European movements. There is much which he must otherwise drag in as extraneous matter, more or less foreign to the general topics under discussion.

From 800 to the period of the struggle between the Church and the Empire, three or possibly four such great movements may be recognized, all of which bear a close relationship to each other. First, there were the barbarian invasions and the break up of Charlemagne's empire, followed as a partial consequence by the rise of feudalism; then an attempt to infuse new life into Church and Empire, followed by a struggle between the two. Overlapping this contest, and at times closely connected with it were those heroic efforts to rescue the Holy Land from the hands of the infidel. In the period represented by these movements perhaps the most difficult interval is that which lies between the rise of feudalism on the one hand, and the struggle between the popes and emperors and the crusades on the other. If it is conceived as a time when the Church and the Empire

were both undergoing a process of rejuvenation and restoration, which made possible the events which followed, it will prove one of the most interesting studies connected with the Middle Ages. This handling of the material also makes possible a discussion of the problems before Germany, and detailed treatment of the position and organization of the Christian Church.

The Restoration of the Empire.

This topic should not occupy a great deal of the time of the class, especially that portion of it which relates to the restoration of the Church and the ensuing century of struggle. The question always arises when this point is reached as to just what reigns in the history of Germany the instructor shall require the class to study and memorize. The bare facts at times loom up large in the mind of the teacher, and this is one of them. These rulers had a singular fondness for the names Henry and Otto, thereby adding much to the confusion. A careful analysis of the material and a rigid adherence to the points of real importance will carry the teacher safely over the interval. What matters it if the student is unable to name more than two or three rulers of

Germany from the Treaty of Verdun to the time of Henry IV? The memorizing of lists of unimportant names simply for the sake of having some details to fill a given interval is a sheer waste of time. There is all too little time to devote to the big things.

The problems before the rulers of Germany after Verdun may have been anticipated when the break up of Charlemagne's empire was under consideration. They mark nevertheless the point of departure for tracing the history of Germany to the time of Henry IV. It has been pointed out (see diagram in THE HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE for September, 1909) that native dynasties were finally established both in France and in Germany. This came about some seventy-five years later in the case of the western half of the old Empire. These facts should now be reviewed even though they may have been already touched upon, and special emphasis placed upon the obstacles before the rulers of Germany. These may be summed up as (a) the stem-duchies, and (b) the Slavs. The stem-duchies should be carefully explained and their names and location noted. The importance of the Slavic element in the development of the Empire will become clearer by frequent references to the map. Maps, such as are to be found in West, pp. 62, 72, and in Dow, Nos. 8 and 13, in which the duchies and marks are clearly indicated, will prove helpful in this connection.

After touching upon the circumstances which placed the Saxon house upon the imperial throne and the methods employed by the first rulers of Germany to solve the problems before them, the class is ready for Otto's great achievement—the restoration of the glories of Charlemagne's empire. The reasons for this attempt, the character and extent of this empire, as compared with that of Charles the Great, and the immediate and far-reaching consequences of the act, constitute the outline.

The Restoration of the Church.

This is perhaps the point at which to take up the other closely-related topic, the restoration of the Church. This part of our theme seems to demand more than a passing glimpse at those conditions in the Church which prompted the reform measures of the monk Hildebrand, soon to be accorded a larger field of operations as the great pope, Gregory VII. The student of medieval history has had little opportunity up to this point of acquainting himself with the nature and influence of the Christian Church, one of the two great factors in the life of medieval Europe. Even though he may have had his attention directed from time to time to such phases of the subject as the rise of the papal authority and the ever-widening field of operations opened to the Church by the conversion of the barbarians, there is an ad-

vantage, which all good teachers will recognize, in summing up and bringing together these bits of scattered information, and in relating them more closely to each other. These details may, of course, be deferred until later when the Church was at the highest point of her power in the time of Innocent III.

The following outline is suggested:

The Church.

I. Its organization.

1. The hierarchy (using the pyramid as an illustration).
2. Territorial divisions (parishes, dioceses, provinces, etc.).
3. Its members (all Christendom included).
 - a. The Clergy.
 1. Regulars—monastic system.
 2. Seculars.
 - b. The Laity.

II. Its income.

1. Tithes.
2. Feudal revenues.
3. Peter's pence.
4. Other sources of income.

III. Its machinery.

1. The sacraments.
2. Papal bulls.
3. The interdict.
4. Excommunication.
5. Church courts.
6. Canon law.

Many of the text-books are woefully deficient in supplying material of this character. If it is found at all there, it is scattered or imperfectly organized. The instructor must be prepared to fill in what the text-book omits. If library facilities approximate the ideal, there is always the possibility of assigning special topics. Whatever method be pursued to secure the facts, the instructor should take time enough to make these points clear once and for all. The following references are suggested: Harding, Chap. V; Robinson, Chap. XVI; Seignobos, "History of Medieval and Modern Civilization," Chap. VII; Bemont and Monod, "Medieval Europe," Chap. XXIX; Munro, "History of the Middle Ages," Chaps. III, XII, XVI; Adams, "Civilization of the Middle Ages," Chap. VI; Munro and Sellery, "Medieval Civilization," pp. 129-158; Emerton, "Medieval Europe," Chap. XVI; Jessopp, "Coming of the Friars," and Cutts, "Scenes and Characters of the Middle Ages," pp. 1-156.

Considerable time should now be devoted to the conditions which demanded reform. The Cluny movement from within the Church itself, and the interference of the German emperors from without can easily be brought together and serve as an introduction for the stirring scenes which followed the assumption of the tiara by Gregory VII.

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HENRY L. CANNON, PH.D., EDITOR.

—An historical and analytical description of the "Monumenta Germaniae Historica," brought up to June 1st, is contained in the "Neue Jahrbücher für das Klassische Altertumsgeschichte," XXV, I.

—In the "Revue des Questions Historiques" for July, Marius Sepet, the biographer of Joan of Arc, reviews "Joan of Arc and Her Most Recent Historians," dwelling chiefly upon the works of Henri Wallon, Anatole France, Andrew Lang, and Francis G. Lowell.

—The January-May numbers of the Bulletin of the New York Public Library contain a "List of Works Relating to the Near Eastern Question and the Balkan States, etc." With the June number began installments of a "List of Works Relating to British Genealogy and Local History."

—The annual review number of the Bulletin of the International Bureau of American Republics this year is in two sections, July and August. For each of the twenty-one countries up-to-date material is presented—and may be obtained in pamphlet form—upon history, features of government, educational systems, material resources, and many other topics.

—"John Calvin and Calvinism," by J. M. Sloan, appears in the "Fortnightly Review" for August. Of Calvin the author writes: "His life was all work. He preached every third day, lectured regularly to students, debated with heretics, sat on the Consistory and Council of Geneva, and applied his judgment to all public affairs. . . . And, amid the labors of a Titan otherwise, he found time to write his 'Commentaries'—now filling fifty volumes in the one English translation."

—Hidden in "The Point of View" in the August "Scribner's," we find the following as the text of a particularly interesting discussion of local history: "You take a house or bit of land, a road or a river or Indian treaty, as a nucleus; and as you read old books, newspapers, and letters; examine old maps, plans, and pictures; and as you talk with old residents—your facts form layer after layer around your center; and as you compare and generalize and let your imagination flow over all, your house or bit of land, or road or river, or Indian treaty, grows and crystallizes into a shapely, lasting concretion of local history."

—"The Athenian Phratries" is the title of an exhaustive article in "Classical Philology" for July by Professor William Scott Ferguson, of Harvard University. In the "Classical Journal" for April the same writer treats of "The Office of the Ancient Historian" as compared with that of the philologist or archaeologist.

—An article in the September "Sunset," by Professor A. L. Kroeber, of the Univer-

sity of California, describes "A Recent Remarkable Discovery of Human Remains over Three Hundred Years Old in the San Joaquin Valley of California."

—"The Proceedings of the Conference on Research in English History," reported by the chairman, Professor Edward P. Cheyney of the University of Pennsylvania (Annual Report of the American Historical Association for 1908; printed 1910), contain a discussion of the proposed bibliography of English history, opened by Professor Catterall and continued by Professors A. L. Cross, Sidney B. Fay, Roger B. Merriman, J. F. Baldwin, and by Mr. W. Dawson Johnston, librarian of the Bureau of Education; also a paper by Miss Frances G. Davenport, of the Carnegie Institution of Washington, on "Manuscript Materials for English Diplomatic History"; and one by Professor Laurence M. Larson, on "Old Norse Sources in English History."

—"The Diary of Gideon Welles," the energetic Secretary of the Navy under Lincoln and Johnson, begun in the February number of the "Atlantic Monthly," reaches its eighth installment (July 11-October 23, 1867) in the September number. Of President Johnson he wrote: "He has great capacity, is conversant with our public affairs beyond most men, has much experience, possesses great firmness, sincere patriotism, a sacred regard for the Constitution, is humane and benevolent. . . . It is one of his greatest weaknesses that he has no confidants, and seeks none. . . . Many of his most important steps have been taken without the knowledge of any of his Cabinet, and I think without the knowledge of any person whatever." The degree of reliance we should place upon such historical material when edited for appearance in periodicals published primarily for the general reader is brought out in the discussion that appeared relative to the Welles Diary in the "Nation" for May 12.

—In the August "Preussische Jahrbücher," Dr. Ludwig Riess discusses "The Legend of the Magna Charta," with the view of ascertaining its real place in constitutional history. Its great importance he considers to arise from two sources. First, by reason of the influence of Stephen Langton, who looked fondly back upon the fancied insular quiet of the reign of Edward the Confessor, the Magna Charta embodied the sentiments of national unity and ecclesiastical independence. Second, in the provision for its enforcement through the collective action of the baronage, the charter contained the germ of the principle of constitutional opposition necessary to all parliamentary government. "If we would study the origin and nature of the constitutional life which in our day has spread so as to

embrace Russia, Persia, Turkey, and even China, we must always return to the covenant which King John concluded with his barons for himself and his successors. Magna Charta is not merely 'a symbol of a successful resistance to royal tyranny,' but actually the foundation stone of the English constitution."

—The first installment of the "Reminiscences" of the late Goldwin Smith appears in the September "McClure's," and is devoted to the Civil War. It abounds with crisp descriptions and estimates of the men and issues of the time.

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Diocletian's Palace

(See first page of cover.)

The illustrations upon the first page of this number of the MAGAZINE are reproductions of plates 52 and 53 in Prof. A. L. Frothingham's new work, "Roman Cities in Italy and Dalmatia" (New York, Sturgis and Walton Co., price \$1.75 net). The restoration, by Durm, is a bird's-eye view of Diocletian's palace; the sea-front view is from an engraving by Adam in the eighteenth century.

Says Prof. Frothingham (p. 309), "One is fairly tempted to say that Spalato is the best remaining embodiment of late Roman ideals. In the first place, it is thoroughly cosmopolitan, representing many races and centuries both as heir and progenitor, with one hand stretched out to Rome and the other to the Middle Ages. In its plan and system it embodies the militarism and centralization so characteristic of Diocletian. It accentuates the Oriental idea of the separation of the sexes in its double parallel apartments, and in this as well as in its style illustrates the Eastward tendency of the emperors of the third century, which was soon to culminate in the founding of Constantinople. . . .

"This is both the palace and the tomb of the last really great emperor. As we skirt its waterfront for about six hundred feet we gradually understand that there is no parallel to what we are seeing: a medieval city of nearly twenty thousand people built largely inside the walls of an imperial fortified villa-palace, planned like a military camp and yet a monument of luxury and magnificence."

The walls, enclosing nearly ten acres, measure 570 feet from east to west and 700 feet from north to south, following the rectangular form of the Roman camp. The walls were 70 feet high on the sea line and 50 feet on the land side. The classic architectural forms are varied by the introduction of arcades, vaulted ceilings and even by the use of the arch in the base of the gable to occupy part of the triangular space of the pediment. The three important parts of the palace are the throne-room, the temple (probably of Jupiter), and the mausoleum of Diocletian. Of the latter Prof. Frothingham says it "stands preëminent in preserving not only its entire structure, but practically all of its decoration. Hardly any ancient monument of any class is so intact."

The palace was erected in view of the approaching abdication of Diocletian, and he resided almost continually in it from about that time (305) till his death (313). After his death it was used as a factory for cloth-weaving, with female workers. During the Middle Ages it had many vicissitudes, becoming at last a seat for a school of art which controlled Dalmatia.

Prof. Frothingham gives thirteen other views of the ruins in addition to those printed upon the cover of this number of the MAGAZINE.

Recording History for History Teachers

BY WILLIAM H. ALLEN, PH.D.

Bureau of Municipal Research, New York City.

An important contribution to the cause of efficient municipal government has just been made. Herman A. Metz, former comptroller of New York City, has announced a gift of \$10,000 for three years "to make available to American cities the best principles and practice worked out in municipal accounting and reporting." The fund is to be administered by the directors of the Bureau of Municipal Research, and Comptroller Prendergast, Mr. Metz's successor, has assured the bureau of the cordial coöperation of his department.

Efficient methods of accounting and reporting are "applied civics" of the highest order. Children will readily see the difference between information and ignorance regarding city affairs, between sustained interest which studies community needs every day in the year and "election excitement." So phenomenal have been the changes wrought in the administration of New York City as a result of this increased knowledge of civic affairs, that a city "whose career has been a by-word among the spendthrift municipalities,"—to quote the "Montreal Gazette,"—"is challenging nation-wide attention, and is rapidly becoming an example for other cities to emulate."

Lessons in civics and history may be intensified and verified a hundred fold if teachers and students together will trace the steps which have brought about this revolution.

Mr. Metz, through this fund, proposes to clinch the reforms already effected by creating a practical basis for making them permanent. Other American cities are to enjoy the benefits of New York's experience, and they in turn are to give New York the benefit of their experience. While in Germany Mr. Metz observed the high degree of uniformity in accounting methods that German cities have attained, which enables them to make comparisons as to financial standing, as to cost of each department, and as to methods of increasing efficiency through such comparisons. This, Mr. Metz thinks, would be highly desirable for American cities, and the Bureau of Municipal Research will therefore serve as a clearing house of information as to the most efficient methods of accounting and reporting, and how these methods may be installed in every city.

Mr. Alonzo Tweedale, president of the American Society of Comptrollers, and auditor of the District of Columbia, says of this fund: "In my opinion no contribution has ever been made for an object which is destined to give such large returns, it being evident that uniformity [and adequacy] in municipal accounting and reporting and the adoption of the best methods of financial administration in the government of municipalities, will save to the citizens and tax-

payers of the United States millions of dollars annually."

Of course both Mr. Metz and Mr. Tweedale have in mind the accounting and reporting which show clearly *work done*, as well as *money spent*, in doing each kind of work. This means a true picture of community needs and community work.

While methods of accounting and reporting lie peculiarly within the range of experts, citizens may keep interest awakened and sustained through intelligent questioning as to community needs and official activity. Our future citizens are not too young to begin this propaganda in their own towns by being taught to ask questions as to the management of local school or health moneys and local school and health needs.

The Bureau of Municipal Research will be glad to answer questions in "applied civics," and recommends the following reports for the use of teachers:

"How Should Public Budgets be Made?" 10 cents.

"What Should New York's Next Mayor Do?" 10 cents.

"What Should New York's Next Comptroller Do?" 5 cents.

"Municipal Reform in New York City—Through Revision of Business Methods." 10 cents.

For description of purposes and methods of municipal research, for information as to the budget exhibit which will be in progress at 330 Broadway throughout October, and for sample Efficient Citizenship bulletins, address 261 Broadway, New York City.

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Book Reviews

A BIBLIOGRAPHY OF HISTORY.

An annotated bibliography of history for the use of American teachers of the subject has long been needed. The most urgent demand for such a work came from teachers in secondary schools who have been trying to introduce collateral reading into their history classes. Committee reports, text-book makers and enlightened educators all have insisted that the study of history in the secondary school should not stop with the text-book, but should include occasional browsing in other works and detailed reports from standard authors or source materials. The teacher who conscientiously tried to live up to this requirement found his students turned loose without a guide into some public library or into a school library which had grown up in the most accidental way. Even the teacher himself often had no clue to the historical value of the several works which good or bad fortune threw within the reach of the class. To such teachers an evaluation of history works had become an essential to any further pedagogical advance.

Circumstances somewhat similar had obtained in the field of history in the elementary schools. Literally hundreds of volumes of collateral reading, often half fiction and less history, have been published in the last fifteen years for the use of elementary history classes. Teachers and principals have had little knowledge of the respective merits of these works, except as they received the opinions of publishers and book agents, or as they were discovered by dear experience. The time was ripe for an appraisal of these volumes.

Even the college instructor in history possessed no general bibliography of his subject, and he could not refer his students or inquiring librarians to any impartial judgment of historical works. He knew the bibliography of his own field, but for works outside of that he was compelled to depend upon the gossip of his colleagues or occasional reviews of recent works. Thus there was a place even in the college for an annotated bibliography.

These demands, especially those coming from the elementary and the secondary school, are exceptionally well met by the collaborative work of Prof. Andrews, Mr. Gambrill and Miss Tall, entitled "A Bibliography of History for Schools and Libraries." This work is an outgrowth of the appointment by the Maryland History Teachers' Association in 1908 of a committee to prepare reference lists upon American history and upon historical and biographical stories for children of elementary school age. The committee took its work so seriously that it extended its lists to include historical works upon other countries than the United States. At first published in

the "Atlantic Educational Journal," the lists were still further expanded and are now published under the auspices of the Association of History Teachers of the Middle States and Maryland.

In the words of the editors, the distinctive features of the work are: "(1) its comprehensiveness, as covering the whole field of history; (2) its brevity and the selective character of the lists; (3) the classification and arrangement, following the lines of the historical curriculum most in favor at the present day; (4) the annotations, provided in the case of nearly every work listed, describing impartially and critically the character, scope and importance of each; (5) its unique value for the elementary teacher, as containing the only annotated list of history books for children yet published; (6) the coöperative character, being prepared by representatives of the teaching of history in the university, the high school, and the elementary school."

Nine distinct lists are given in the book, as follows: The Study and Teaching of History, and Historical Aids; World Histories; Ancient History; European History; English History; American History; Histories of Other Countries; Historical Stories for the Elementary Schools; and Stories for Children Preparatory to History. Under each of these general topics there are several subdivisions, and the works listed are arranged alphabetically or in order of importance under the sub-heads. Thus, under American History, which occupies about one-third of the book, there are lists of works upon bibliography, collections of documents, physiography, general histories, histories of periods; lists of works treating of the constitutional, diplomatic, financial, economic, or political history of the country; lists of state histories and of biographies. Similar, although not so exhaustive, subdivisions are made under the other general topics.

The bibliography is not, of course, an exhaustive one, but the editors are to be complimented upon the excellent judgment shown in the selection of works for listing. There are some omissions of works in English which one would like to see included; and there is practically no mention of works in foreign tongues. The annotations have been made with care; they are, in the main, sane, and represent the best thought of the historical profession to-day. The effort has not been to condemn harshly, but to evaluate justly, and to point out the serviceable features of a work while also calling attention to its faults. The following extract evaluating certain works upon the English Reformation will illustrate the nature of the editors' work:

Froude's work has enjoyed a wide popularity, but it is often inaccurate and biased. The volumes relating to Elizabeth are the

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most satisfactory. Brewer's history (edited by Gairdner) is based upon the State Papers and is authoritative. Gasquet's study of the dissolution of the monasteries is admirable. The chapters in the Cambridge Modern History [vol. II.], though somewhat disconnected, are of great value. Lindsay's "History of the Reformation," noted in the General European list, contains excellent chapters relating to the Reformation in England and Scotland.

There are two minor defects in the work which can easily be remedied in a later edition. The first of these is the absence of any references to bibliographies other than those upon American history. There seems no good reason why a few of the best bibliographies for each period should not be mentioned. The second defect, and more serious, is the absence of an index to authors' names. As the works referred to are listed under fifty or sixty sub-topics, and not always arranged alphabetically under these topics, it is not an easy matter to obtain the editors' evaluation upon a given work. We venture to say that the bibliography will be used by the teacher as frequently to obtain a judgment upon some particular work which comes to hand, as to obtain a list of works upon a given topic. To be really serviceable for the first purpose, the work should be fitted with a good index to authors' names at least.

But minor defects must not blind us to the real merits of this work, a work which was performed by the editors in the true spirit of service to the profession. Aside from the famous report of the Committee of Seven, we know of no work so likely to improve the standard of history teaching in the country, or so calculated to aid the teacher at every step, or to save him time and strength. It should be on the desk of every teacher of history and in the hands of every librarian. A teacher of history in the schools who will not pay sixty cents for this volume should not be teaching history.

[*"A Bibliography of History for Schools and Libraries, with Descriptive and Critical Annotations."* By Charles M. Andrews, J. Montgomery Gambrill, and Lida Lee Tall. Pp. xiv, 224, and 24 blank sheets. Longmans, Green & Co. 60 cents.]

WRITINGS ON AMERICAN HISTORY, 1908.

Miss Griffin's third volume does for the year 1908 what the earlier volumes did for 1906 and 1907. The author's purpose is to include *all* books and magazine articles, wherever published and in whatever language, which have anything of value to the history of the continental United States and Canada. For other portions of America the aim has been to include all writings on their history published in the continental United States, Canada, or Europe, but not what the countries to the southward have published upon their own history.

Not only is it the author's aim to make the bibliography complete, but she has been

most generous in her interpretation of the term "American History." She has included not only works upon bibliography, and upon general and local American history, but also works upon the following topics: biography; genealogy; military and naval history; politics, government and law; social and economic history; religious history; educational history; fine arts; literature; and music. In all 2,946 books and articles are listed, representing the principal modern languages, and referring to about 350 periodicals. Under many of the works listed, references are made to articles in which they have been reviewed.

The student of American history who thinks he has kept in touch with the bibliography of his subject through reviews and publishers' notices, will be surprised to find from a perusal of this volume how much that is valuable has escaped his notice. Working in the Library of Congress, and having access to local and foreign

publications rarely obtained by American scholars, Miss Griffin has performed a service for the hundreds and thousands of persons interested in American history which they could not perform for themselves. A few moments' use of such a bibliography may preserve a writer from an egregious blunder, or save a research student many hours of labor upon library catalogues or magazine files. American scholars, as well as American librarians and journalists owe a debt of gratitude to Miss Griffin for her painstaking work, and to Dr. J. F. Jameson, and others who have made possible the publication of the bibliography. It is sincerely to be desired that the support given to the work will warrant its continuance through many annual volumes.

[*"Writings on American History, 1908."* Compiled by Grace Gardner Griffin. Pp. xviii, 174. The Macmillan Co. Price, \$2.50 net.]

Reports from the Historical Field

WALTER H. CUSHING, EDITOR.

Miss Mabel Hill, of the State Normal School at Lowell, Mass., was one of the lecturers in the Old South Course in Boston the past summer.

Professor Allen Johnson, Bowdoin College, has been elected to a professorship of American History at Yale University.

Dr. Carlton H. Hayes has been made Assistant Professor at Columbia University.

Albert Bushnell Hart has been appointed Eaton Professor of Science and Government in Harvard University, taking the position made vacant by the election of Professor A. Lawrence Lowell as President of the University.

Professor Paul S. Reinsch, of the University of Wisconsin, will be the Theodore Roosevelt Professor of History and Institutions in the University of Berlin for the year 1911-1912.

President John H. Finley, of the College of the City of New York, will lecture at the Sorbonne next year upon "The Development of the West."

A compilation entitled, "Treaties, Conventions, International Acts, Protocols and Agreements between the United States of America and Other Powers, 1776-1909," edited by William Malloy, two volumes, has been issued by the Government Printing Office.

Professor Andrew C. McLaughlin and Professor Albert Bushnell Hart are editing a "Cyclopædia of American Government," to be published by Appletons, and to appear in three volumes.

Mr. S. N. D. North, former Director of the United States Census, will be Managing Editor of the "American Year Book, A Record of Events and Progress." He will be assisted by a conference of national learned societies. The work will be published by D. Appleton Co.

Professor Clarence W. Alvord, of the University of Illinois, will edit a series of works upon the history of the West, entitled, "Pioneers of the West." The volumes will be biographical, and as far as possible will be written from the available manuscript and original sources. The series will be published by Appletons.

The annual report of the North Central History Teachers' Association and the second annual bibliography of history and civics has recently been distributed to members. This number of the series of reports seems to be the best in general make-up that has yet appeared. It contains papers by Professor Reinsch on the "Life of the State and the Teaching of Government"; Miss Thompson, on the "Use of Pictures in History Instruction"; Professor Sellery, on "Discipline and Knowledge"; Professor Lybyer, on the "Use and Abuse of Note Books"; Miss Dye, on the "Historical Pageant," and Mr. Williams, on "Supplementary Reading."

The annual bibliography, a feature of this Association's work which is of great value to all teachers, consists of thirty pages of short critical estimates of the leading books in history and government which have appeared during the preceding year.

This entire report is of value to history teachers, who may procure copies of the secretary, Miss Mary L. Childs, Evanston, Ill.

The annual royalty statement to the New England Association on account of the History Syllabus shows that the work is having a remarkable sale which shows no signs of diminishing. "The Outline for the Study of American Civil Government," the publication of which was somewhat delayed by the death of Mr. Wilson R. Butler, the editor, is now ready.

NOTES FROM ENGLAND.

BY E. BRUCE-FORREST.
William Ellis School, London.

The teaching of history in English schools has undoubtedly had its full share in the educational revolution, which has followed here the passing of the Education Act of 1902. The formation in 1906 of the Historical Association, which has now a membership of about 1,000 and branches throughout the country, is one indication of this fact. The friendly relations between the Association and the Royal Historical Society, and the inclusion among its members of prominent representatives from the professional ranks of the old and the new universities, as well as of well-known teachers both from public schools and the more recent secondary and elementary schools is a happy sign of growing progress and unity in the present and, to a much greater degree, for the future. The references to England in the Report of the Committee of Seven are now much out of date.

The situation is not, however, one for uncritical optimism. In a recent address to the London Association of Non-Primary Teachers on "The New Education," the education officer of the London County Council commented unfavorably on two subjects especially—Latin and history. The comments were quoted from an examiner's report, with which the speaker, apparently, was in full agreement. There was, so he read, a good knowledge of details and of names, but little power of distinguishing between what was of great or of small importance. The results suggested cram, unsatisfactory teaching and unsatisfactory text-books.

It was pointed out in discussion that the subject is a peculiarly difficult one, above all with the growing demand for a wider range of instruction and for a proper place to be given to local, Colonial and European history, etc. Fortunately, however, the attempt to teach too much, which is at the root of so many failures, has been authoritatively condemned in Circular 599 of the Board of Education. In order to give room for the more important, a great deal of detail still normally included "will have to be left out."

Examiners blame teachers. Teachers blame examiners. Next session a series of resolutions submitted by the Council will be discussed by the various branches of the English Historical Association. They refer apparently to pupils of school-learning age and ask explicitly from examiners for questions discouraging cram and requiring thought. A greater proportion of time is demanded for questions of the latter type, and it is suggested that a number of alternatives should be set. More stress should be laid on social, economic, and intellectual movements, and, if possible, opportunity should be given for illustrating answers

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from the history of the candidates' own locality.

In the midst of movement and dispute it is cheering to the teacher to realize how valuable and stimulating the study of history may be to the modern administrator. Lord Cromer has never forgotten nor lost touch with the historical studies of his earlier days. Twice this year he has given addresses to the English Classical Association which show what a real and vital study ancient history is and how a knowledge of ancient empires may help a modern "pro-consul." Referring particularly to the modern problem of combining "Democracy and Empire" at Oxford last term, he defended the study of the past as a help in dealing with the issues of the present, "although we should not think that any analogy between the modern and ancient worlds would afford an unerring guide for political action in the present."

The London (England) County Council is taking means to assist its teachers in keeping up to date in their work. For three years classes have been held on week-day evenings and on Saturday mornings on every subject that is given in the school curriculum. These are authorized courses which are open free of charge to the London teachers. Among the lecturers are Professor Pollard, Mr. MacKinder, and Mr. Sidney Lee, who conduct courses in history and kindred subjects.

The following extract from a letter of March 21st, 1910, written by the late Professor Goldwin Smith, shortly before his

death, to the provost of Oriel College, Oxford, may be of interest to American readers. "It had always been something of a mystery why he left Oxford for America," says the "Oxford Magazine," which printed the letter:

"I believe there have been some rather vague impressions about my reasons for leaving the University when I had got the one thing which I specially desired, the Professorship of Modern History. In politics I had mingled, as well as in journalism, general literature, and Government service. I had built my little house, with capacity for enlargement, at the end of the Park, and was settled, as I thought, for life. Then my father, who lived in Berkshire, met with an accident on the railway, the external consequences of which were repaired, but which left internal consequences, as it appeared, ending in insanity. I had to give up my professorship, sell my Oxford house, and go and live with my father, whom I could not put into an asylum, especially as his fits were intermittent. His malady increasing, he at length destroyed himself. I was absent for a few days on urgent business, as I was told I might safely be.

"I was much cast down, and knew not what to do with myself. Just then came the invitation from Ezra Cornell to join in the foundation of his new University in the State of New York. I had been in the United States at the time of their Civil War, and had made many friends and acquaintances. This was the thing that at that moment I wanted. It gave a new and happy turn to my life."

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